The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 3, 1897.

The Week.

The significance of Secretary Gage's speech at Cincinnati is that it declares that the gold standard must be preserved, that steps will be taken to this end, and that he believes that Congress will pass the measure or measures necessary to this purpose. The Secretary may be mistaken in his belief that Congress will coöperate to this end, but it is a great gain to know that the executive branch of the Government intends to labor for it. The effort will give new courage to the forces that fought together and won the victory of last year, and which were fast disintegrating under the baleful influence of the squabble for tariff spoils at Washington. Mr. Gage thought the business men in attendance on the Cincinnati meeting were agreed that a currency commission should be authorized and appointed at once, with a view to the formulation of a plan which could be presented to Congress when it reassembled in December. In the recess of Congress hearings could and should be given by the commission to financiers and others who might desire to be heard from all parts of the country. If the commission should fail to agree on a satisfactory plan, the Administration would probably have a proposition to present to Congress. In any event, the people with whom the Secretary conversed were agreed that some initiatory action should be taken at once; and so it ought, in an official communication to Congress by the President. A joint resolution to provide for a currency commission would no doubt easily pass the House, and give the Senate something to debate and vote on when the tariff bill goes into conference committee. If the Senate should refuse to concur, the other alternative suggested by the Secretary, *i. e.*, the presentation of a plan by the Administration without the help of a commission, would be in order, as it always is.

The Republican managers in the Senate have devised a plan for rapid progress in the consideration of the tariff bill. Every committee amendment to which no opposition is made by either Republicans or their allies among the Democrats and Populists is passed, while any proposition from which there is dissent on the Republican side is reserved to be settled in caucus. In this manner ten pages have been disposed of in a single day, the sincere opponents of the protective system among the Democrats contenting themselves with pointing out the many examples presented of that "extreme tariff legislation" which Mr. Aldrich has admitted that public sentiment no longer sustains. Mr. Aldrich has evidently arranged a "combine" which will stick together through thick and thin on the platform of successful plunder of the common treasury for special interests. The strength of this combine rests with what the New York *Press* has styled "the blackmailing representatives of Rocky Mountain ranges and ranches," for these Senators have their constituents behind them in any demands which they may choose to make. On the other hand, there is no evidence that the Eastern Republicans will sustain their Senators in defeating the bill in order to resist such demands. Indeed, the party press in New England is already calling upon the representatives of that section to submit to anything in order to finish the business as speedily as possible. The Manchester (N. H.) *Mirror and American*, for example, confesses that the bill as reported by the finance committee is not altogether to its taste, since "it puts a duty upon tea, which we do not believe is necessary or politic; it puts a duty upon hides, which we should be glad to see left on the free list; it does not protect some New England products as much as we think it should, and it protects the products of some other sections more than seems to us desirable." But it considers the passage of a tariff bill necessary to redeem the pledges of the party, and "almost any sacrifice proper in order to save it." It therefore advises the New England Senators to change the pending measure if they can, but to make it their chief duty to get it upon the statute-book in some shape, "and that, too, as speedily as possible, *by whatever arrangement, concession, or trade may be necessary to pass it.*" This argument would justify Senators Chandler and Gallinger of New Hampshire in swallowing even the sugar schedule at a gulp.

All the indications at Washington point to the belief that the additional tax on beer will be rejected when it comes to a vote in the Senate. It is probable that the additional tax on tobacco will be defeated. Special interests are strongly opposed to both these taxes. The most powerful single influence in the United States of a political sort is the saloon influence, and this is controlled by the brewers. It is universal and ubiquitous. Unlike the interest that is fighting against the duty on hides, it is not confined to one corner of the Union. It is found in every city and town of more than 10,000 inhabitants, and in the larger cities it is very nearly omnipotent when united. The hint has been thrown out that as the breweries have been largely sold to English syndicates within recent years, they may be more easily approached by the tax-gatherer than if they had remained in the hands of their former proprietors. This is a superficial view. The question is not who owns the breweries, but who controls the saloons. Everybody knows that the breweries do this; and as the saloons control a very large vote, the question of foreign ownership does not count. Both Senator Platt of New York and Senator Cullom of Illinois have amendments to offer to the bill, striking out the additional tax on beer. Mr. Platt intends to offer as a substitute the stamp taxes on bank checks and legal instruments that existed during the war. These taxes yielded $15,044,000 in the year 1866, and would probably yield $30,000,000 now. In the present condition of the national finances, these stamp taxes ought to be reënacted, even if the proposed beer tax should be retained. As the Government's statistician, Mr. Ford, has given his opinion officially that the revenue will be less than the expenses even if all the items of the Senate bill are retained, some remedy must be found. The deficit must be stopped. Unless that result is reached, the Republican party will be crushed at the next congressional elections, and the business of the country will be even worse than it is now. It is conceivable that President McKinley may be forced to sell bonds to keep the Treasury in funds. As things are now going, we shall soon need all the internal-revenue taxes of the war period to meet the Government's bills.

Senator Jones of Arkansas made a pretty showing up of the plate-glass schedules in the Senate on Saturday. He demonstrated that Senator Aldrich, in his abhorrence of "extreme protection," had shoved up the glass duties from 30 to 83 per cent. above even the monstrous McKinley rates. This had been done, moreover, at the demand of the Pittsburgh Plate Glass Company, which controls the trade in this country and actually makes customers take sizes of glass they do not want or else go without. Senator Jones read the company's answer to an order, in which it was stated that "under no circumstance will they accept orders for those two sizes at a greater proportion than 20 per cent. of the entire quantity under 5 square feet." Yet the company is not a Trust, for Senator Quay says it is not; and it makes no profits, for Senator Platt of Connecticut had "heard" that it did not, though he had nothing to say to R. G. Dun's report that $2,500,000 had been

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

made by the Pittsburgh Glass Company in twenty-two months on a capital (how much water not known) of $10,000,000. But the real reason for an increase of the duties for the benefit of this concern appeared in the answer of the customer whose order was refused for not including the kind of glass the company preferred to sell. He wrote: "We see that we have to look abroad for our supply in assortments such as our business requires." But the company knew a trick worth two of that. It flew, or had Quay fly, to Aldrich and got him to put up the rates so that this wicked looking abroad would no longer be possible for the victims of its tyrannical business methods. And the solid Republican vote was given manfully for the increase, even after its flagrant nature had been exposed.

Mr. John De Witt Warner explains in the *Evening Post* the reason why the American Sugar Refining Company wants an ad-valorem duty. It is because this phrase makes the market value of the sugar at the place of growth the basis of the collection of duties; and since sugars are grown in many small islands where there is really no market value, they can make the invoice price pretty much to suit themselves. Mr. Aldrich proposes, says Mr. Warner, "that the Treasury become a partner in fleecing itself by adopting an ad-valorem rate, which will reduce the duty collected on the Trust's raw material in precise proportion as it is successful in procuring undervaluations. It is a scheme to secure for the Trust as much as possible of its raw material on terms which will give it the greatest possible net 'protection' on its refined product, and at the same time help it to depress the prices of raw sugars produced here by our beet-sugar farmers and small planters of cane sugar." That there is a deal of deception in Mr. Aldrich's explanation of the sugar schedule seems to be taken for granted by the press, and especially by the Republican press. The Springfield *Union* says that "a schedule which requires such an elaborate and intricate defence cannot be as good as it is painted." That is a mild way of putting it. An explanation which people of intelligence cannot understand must be a cover for fraud.

By a curious freak of fate, on the very day when the new sugar schedules were being explained in the Senate, Mr. H. O. Havemeyer, the head of the Sugar Trust, was called up by a very different tribunal to give an explanation on a closely related subject. What Mr. Aldrich explained was the probable effect of the Senate sugar schedule on the income of the country; what Mr. Havemeyer was called upon to atone for was refusing to explain how much of the Trust's income was used in getting through the present sugar schedule in the Wilson bill. Mr. Havemeyer's defence was that he never made any contributions for national purposes, and hence had nothing to tell bearing on the inquiry of the Senate committee. But, however innocent of contumacy, he never pretended that the Sugar Trust did not put its money where it would do most good. Judge Bradley dismissed the indictment against him on the ground that the evidence introduced by the prosecution did not sustain the charge of contempt. The guilt of the defendant, he held, depended on two propositions, first, whether the committee had jurisdiction and the question was pertinent, and, second, whether the question called for facts within the possession of the witness. He had not been called upon by his subpœna to bring his books with him, and the facts as to political contributions called for were not matters within his personal knowledge. This he had positively stated to the Senate committee under oath. Hence, he had committed no contempt, and the other questions, whether the committee had jurisdiction of an inquiry into State and local contributions, or whether the inquiries as to these were pertinent, did not come up.

At the end of a state trial nowadays, it is the custom of the Associated Press reporter on duty to inquire of the accused what view he takes of the result of the trial. If it has gone in his favor he declares it to be satisfactory to him, while if it results in a conviction, he criticises it as unwarranted by the evidence, or contrary to law. The question was put in the usual form to Mr. Havemeyer, "Is the result satisfactory to you?" and he answered unqualifiedly in the affirmative, adding vigorously, "And to every decent man in the community." The last statement, however, was obviously not within his personal knowledge. Every decent man may be supposed to sympathize with the escape of a man unjustly accused, but Mr. Havemeyer's offence in the popular eye is not contempt of the Senate, but procuring legislation by corrupt means; and this charge has never been tried, and is not likely to be tried.

No subsidies of any kind from any government have been given to the Hamburg-American Steamship Line during the fifty years of its existence. How, then, are we to account for the extraordinary growth of its business and its fleet, as set forth at the celebration of its semi-centennial last week? No subsidies no ships, say our ablest ship-loving and ship-building Senators. Only the other day they had to talk about giving American register to a foreign ship to carry our relief contributions to India, because we have none of our own to send, presumably through lack of shipping bounties. The French, on the other hand, have been fairly killing their shipping with subsidies. The French Government now pays in bounties about half the cost of steamships, besides contributing heavily to the expense of navigating them; yet French tonnage is steadily decreasing. The experience of the Hamburg Line seems therefore to indicate that getting freight and passengers is, after all, a surer road to steamship prosperity than getting subsidies. This is a hard doctrine, but the facts prove it. We know, however, that our greatest senatorial authorities on shipping bounties will only say, So much the worse for the facts.

The "original package" question is a very puzzling one. A few years ago, when the scheme was devised of sending liquors into prohibition States for sale in bottles, casks, or barrels, Congress, in the exercise of its power to regulate commerce among the several States, passed a law providing that all liquors transported into any State should immediately become subject to the laws of that State, and should not be exempted therefrom by reason of being introduced in original packages. When South Carolina adopted the dispensary system, by which the State monopolizes the control of the traffic, this law, in connection with a provision in the dispensary law, was relied upon to prevent the selling of imported liquors by private parties. On Monday, however, Judge Simonton of the United States Circuit Court decided that, when a State recognizes and approves the sale of liquors and itself engages in the traffic, "it is not a lawful exercise of the police power to forbid the importation of such liquors or their sale in original packages for personal use and consumption, such prohibition under those circumstances being in conflict with the laws of interstate and foreign commerce." The case will of course be carried to the Supreme Court. Should that tribunal sustain Judge Simonton's position, the dispensary law would be practically nullified.

The last New York Legislature left behind it some 750 bills for the Governor to dispose of, this being about three-quarters of an average year's harvest. Many of them he has slaughtered, thus saving, it is said, some $1,000,000, so that we shall have, as the net result of the season, less legislation than usual. This is certainly gratifying, but the root of the evil is there still. Three-quarters of the work is not legislation at all, but consists of administrative measures relating to the government of cities, or to the management of corporations, which have to go through the mill at Albany simply because the Constitution does not provide a means by which the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

corporations and the cities may attend to them by machinery of their own. The Greater New York charter ostensibly puts a stop to this business so far as New York is concerned, by creating a legislature here for local business, but alas! it leaves the Legislature at Albany in full possession of its existing powers.

Mr. Platt puts forth in his personal organ, the old Tammany *Sun*, an official account of the way in which he uses his governmental powers to discourage refractoriness and independence in the ranks of the party. He is so proud of his system that he reveals its workings without reservation, feeling for decent public sentiment that same supreme contempt which Gov. Black delights to express. He directs public attention today to the fact that all the nine Republican Senators who opposed the confirmation of Lou Payn have had their bills killed by Gov. Black. He does not say this directly in regard to all the Senators, but he declares it to be a fact in regard to some, and intimates that it is a fact in regard to others. He says that the Governor has either "allowed to die or has vetoed certain bills in which Republican Senators were interested who voted against the confirmation of Louis F. Payn," that among these Senators was Mr. White of Syracuse, "all of whose bills have been either vetoed or allowed to die by Gov. Black," and that the Republicans admire the Governor for the "spirit" he has shown. We have little doubt that the Governor has shown the same extraordinary "spirit" towards the bills of the seven Senators and Assemblymen who ventured to vote in caucus against Platt himself for Senator. If he has not, then he has failed to carry into execution one of the fundamental principles of the government of which he is held up by Platt to be so obedient an agent. The fear that he would show this "spirit" was the controlling influence at Albany during the Senatorship controversy. Senator Siebert of Buffalo said that if he were to vote for Mr. Choate, "everything would be tied up in Albany so that Erie County would get no appropriations for the new armory or any legislation that it wanted." Assemblyman Fuller of Broome County said: "I am uncertain what to do. I have various important measures which I desire to introduce in the Assembly, and if I do not vote for Platt, none of them will be allowed to go through." Both these men voted for Platt. When it came to Payn's confirmation, the same power was exerted, but nine Senators had the courage to refuse to yield to it.

Mr. T. P. O'Connor's account, in the June *Harper*, of Mr. Chamberlain's debating methods was confirmed even while his article was appearing. There was a debate in the Commons on May 13 about foreign prison-made goods, and Mr. Chamberlain intervened, in what Mr. O'Connor truly declares to be his usual style, with some quotations from former speeches of John Morley and Mr. Bryce, intending to cover those gentlemen with confusion. He had great fun while he was at it, and got the House laughing immoderately. But the laugh was turned against Mr. Chamberlain when Mr. Bryce replied. After paying a tribute to the remarkable exhibition, he would not say of oratory, but of "political agility" which the House had just enjoyed, he went on to show that, if it came to citations of old speeches, he could do something in that line himself, and produced a most damning extract from a speech of Chamberlain's, no longer than two years ago, in direct contradiction of what he was saying now. Then, on the main question of what the facts really were—that is, of the real competition in England of foreign prison-made goods—Mr. Bryce quite overwhelmed Mr. Chamberlain, and fairly drove him from the House. But that agile gentleman will turn up again next time, just as jaunty as ever, with another quotation or two in his vest-pocket to "corner" hopelessly his adversaries. Chamberlain's fondness for charging inconsistency, when he himself has eaten more of his own words than almost any man in public life, is a psychological curiosity.

The production of a part of the South African cablegrams before the Parliamentary investigating committee on May 18 added little, perhaps, to the evidence that the Jameson raid was a long-cherished plot at which it was thought the imperial authorities would connive, but the dispatches exchanged between Rhodes and his London agent do show the former's thorough unscrupulousness in stronger light than ever. Rhodes was terribly impatient about the transfer of the Bechuanaland protectorate (in order that he might get his expeditionary force on the Transvaal border), and cabled angrily, while the negotiators were showing some regard for the rights of the natives: "It is humiliating to be utterly beaten by these niggers. They think more of one native at home than the whole of South Africa." "The Jameson plan" was freely spoken of in the dispatches, and was referred to even in communications to the Colonial Office, but the phrase is now explained as meaning the massing of a force on the border, not necessarily the raid. The nearest approach to proving that the Colonial Office was privy to the raid was found in the evidence that Rhodes's agents had talked freely with a Mr. Fairfield, Chamberlain's chief clerk at the Colonial Office. It is known that he informed Mr. Chamberlain of other things said to him by the Rhodes emissaries, and why not this? On this point Dr. Harris, Rhodes's man, declared, under oath:

> "I cannot say that is solely what I said to Mr. Fairfield. I am bound to say, both for my own reputation and Mr. Fairfield's, it is in the knowledge of other gentlemen that I spoke more openly to Mr. Fairfield than that. I will explain what I said now that I am compelled to do so. I mentioned to Mr. Fairfield that one of the reasons why Mr. Rhodes was anxious to get the protectorate was that he considered it imperative to have a British force on the borders, so that in the event of a disturbance taking place in Johannesburg he would be in a position, if he deemed it right, to use that force."

What sort of a head clerk must Mr. Fairfield have been, thus to have known of the raid beforehand, but to have concealed it from his chief? Luckily for Mr. Chamberlain, Fairfield is dead.

The breakdown of the great socialistic experiment in the Carmaux glass works, of which an account has been given in these columns, is important chiefly because the attempt was there made to apply socialistic doctrine practically, and under the most favorable conditions. The capital of $100,000, obtained by a lottery, was substantially a gift. The institution was backed by the leading lights of French Socialism; the furnaces were lighted, as it were, by the flaming oratory of M. Jaurès. All that sympathy and solidarity and fraternity could do to make the works successful was guaranteed in advance. Yet the whole has gone to wreck just as if it were a case of vulgar exploiting by private capital. Wages are months in arrears, heavy debts are accumulating, the workmen and their families are begging in the streets. No wonder that those of the men who have applied for work elsewhere, begin by saying, "We have lost all illusions."

It seems hardly conceivable that the very Powers which gave Thessaly to Greece by the Berlin Treaty can now allow it to be given back; but as it was England who forced on the Berlin Treaty, so now it would seem to depend on England whether much interest is shown in its being observed. And if Turkey announces her intention to stay in Thessaly, who is going to drive her out? Lord Salisbury might withdraw from the Concert, but that, unless it was a forerunner of a policy of isolated and aggressive action, would only leave the other Powers to do what they liked. On the whole, cool observers in England feel that the proceedings of the Concert —the massacre of the Armenians, the blockade of Crete, the invasion and ruin of Greece—have brought Europe no nearer a peaceful settlement of the Eastern question than it was two years ago. In a recent French caricature, Lord Salisbury and M. Hanotaux are represented as commiserating one another with glum faces and sighing, "As long as they fight, it's all right. But when Peace comes——"

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ISSUES IN SEARCH OF A PARTY.

The deepening sense of political confusion and cross-purposes, at Washington and throughout the country, is due to the growing fear of voters that the ordinary political remedy is to be taken away from them. No single, sharp issue now divides, or promises soon to divide, parties and the electorate. Historically the way to punish a party for bad measures has been to put in power the party that was against them; now we seem shut up to putting in power a party which stands for worse measures. In other words, no issue is joined; the competition of parties is not for the honor of passing or opposing some one great measure; their avowed plan is to meet one evil with another, it being an open question which is the greater. Whichever way the voter turns, he is thus in danger of having mistaken his remedy, as the courts say.

Look at the actual situation in Washington. A tariff bill is pushing towards enactment which the Democrats say is monstrous. But what alternative do they offer? A better tariff? Stout opposition to this one? Oh, no; they offer us free silver. If you are against a corrupt tariff, they are practically saying to the voters, the only way to show it is to go for free silver. Electors who are against both a wicked tariff and free silver do not enter into the calculation; the political managers ignore them, and think that hence they do not exist. Reversing the comparison, Republican plans for meeting the Democratic mischief are just as far from really making an issue. The Democratic proposition is free silver; the Republican counter-proposition is a scandalous tariff. There is, to be sure, a perfunctory and largely insincere Republican opposition to free silver, just as there is a perfunctory and largely insincere Democratic opposition to a high tariff. But these are mere asides. In general the case is made up of Extreme Protection vs. Free Silver. This is much like giving a victim his choice of the manner of his death; like calling upon men under conviction of sin to choose, not between the Lord and the Devil, but between Satan and Ahriman or Unkulunkulu.

The most exasperating part of this jangling of party issues is that there are questions of the largest importance, in which thousands of citizens are deeply interested and on which they are anxious to see parties align themselves. We often hear of parties looking about for an issue; it is now, however, a case of issues in search of a party. Causes filled with the promise and potency of political victory, as well as of the public good, are actually begging some party to take them up and ride with them to success. Never was public opinion riper for a rational measure of currency reform. Bankers and business men, boards of trade and chambers of commerce are ready, in all parts of the country, to give the heartiest backing to any man or party that will move resolutely in this matter. But what can they do with the alternative actually presented them—Bryanism or Aldrichism? Economy in public expenditures is a subject to which voters in every State are looking with anxiety to see some party take it up as a part of its serious programme. But both parties in Congress are simply rivals in profligacy. Business-like administration in national, State, and city affairs would furnish a platform almost invincible if honestly adopted and lived up to by any party. But leaders in both parties are vying with each other in flouting and breaking down the civil-service laws.

This grotesque state of things may continue for some time; voters may be compelled to cast their ballots this fall, and even in next year's congressional elections, for parties both of which they distrust and despise, or make a choice of evils when what they ardently desire is to choose neither. But it is incredible that some way out will not be found after that. The American sense of humor, to say nothing of American logic, will refuse to be shut up to political issues which are so grossly unreal as the issue between free silver and a corrupt tariff. The real issues will, in the end, find a real party. Voters who are against free silver will be allowed to vote for the gold standard; those who are against a tariff of barter and sale will find some way of indicating their preference for an honest tariff for revenue.

Just how this will come about he would be that rashest of men, a political prophet, who should undertake to say. But there are several ways in which it might come about. A tremendous drubbing administered to the Republicans this fall and next might sober them as did their defeats in 1874, and lead them to take up currency reform in earnest as they took up resumption in earnest then. Or, if they fail, there are the Sound-Money Democrats. They ask and can make no compromise. They refuse to take either horn of the silver-protection dilemma. The Indianapolis platform remains, and, in case of Republican recreancy, would be the one rallying-place of honest men in 1900. The Republican organization could not be held together against it; next time it would be the turn of Sound-Money Republicans to break with their party in order to save the country's honor. These may be idle speculations, but it is certain that the present intolerable confusion of politics and absence of definite political issues cannot long continue. Either through a stirring up of the conscience or a readjustment of old parties, or by the creation of a new party, the American people will find a way of voting for or against a given policy; not, as now, of being free to choose only the particular kind of ruin and disgrace they may prefer.

SENATOR ALDRICH'S SPEECH.

Mr. Aldrich's opening speech on the amendments to the tariff bill reported by the finance committee was very adroit for the purpose at which the Senator aimed, which was to make the bill stand straight on its tripod. The tripod, as we pointed out when the amendments were first reported, consists of three items, sugar, wool, and hides. These are the three things which are expected to carry each other and the whole bill through. That the sugar schedule is devised primarily for the benefit of the Sugar Trust (as the existing law is) no one who understands the subject doubts. The subject is not easily understood, however, and hence a man with a glib tongue, and who holds a responsible position, and is practised in tariff controversy, can easily make the worse appear the better reason. This Mr. Aldrich may succeed in doing until some Senator equally skilled in debate and perhaps more familiar with the intricacies of sugar refining, shall answer him. He will certainly be put to his trumps before the bill leaves the Senate. Meanwhile it will be well to remember that Mr. Aldrich was reckoned as an outside ally of the Gorman-Brice combine that spoiled the Wilson bill in 1894.

Aside from the three items which constitute the tripod of the present bill, Mr. Aldrich's speech is little likely to give satisfaction to his own party. He says in effect that the country did not expect the extreme rates of the Dingley bill and that those rates are not now justifiable. He adds that those of the McKinley bill would not now be justifiable. What he says here is true enough to elicit growls from the Dingleyites which have already been heard, and will probably be louder when the bill gets back to the House, but it will not conciliate the Democrats or bring any support to the measure whch it does not now enjoy, for a bill which contains the wool and woollen schedule of this bill can never pass for a moderate measure. "The committee believe," says Mr. Aldrich, "that in the reductions they have suggested from the rates imposed in the House bill, they have not gone in any instance below the protective point." He should have said "the prohibitive point." The Senate amendments are in some respects less swinish than those of the Dingley bill, and in some respects more so. There is not much to choose between them as regards rates. It may be said, perhaps, that the Senate has reduced a larger number than it has raised, but in some important cases it has raised rates which ought to have been reduced. Carpet wool furnishes one such instance, and hides another, and sugar a third,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

these being, as we have said, the three legs on which the whole structure stands.

Mr. Aldrich's explanation of the revenue features of the bill are far from satisfactory. He first demolishes Mr. Dingley's estimate of the income to be derived from the House bill. How wide of the mark this estimate was, in Mr. Aldrich's opinion, may be inferred from the fact that he estimates a surplus of only $2,725,000 from his own bill after taking account of the increased duty on sugar, the new duty on tea, and the additional taxes on beer and tobacco. In other words, there is a difference of about $40,000,000 in the computations of Dingley and Aldrich, which is rather startling when we consider that they both claim to be experts, and ought to be such, and that the question whether there shall be a surplus or a deficit depends upon what they are doing. The most important fact brought out in the subsequent debate was that the chief of the Bureau of Statistics, Mr. W. C. Ford, had expressed the opinion, in response to an inquiry of the committee, that neither the House bill nor the Senate bill would furnish sufficient revenue to meet the expenses of the government. It is probable that the Dingley bill, by cutting off imports, would yield even less than the present tariff.

Mr. Aldrich, while enlarging upon the revenue features of his own measure, and particularly upon the gains to the Treasury from his raw sugar duties, explains also that these duties will have the effect to multiply the production of sugar in our own country, and he presents a truly glowing picture of the increasing beet culture. He looks forward to the time, not far distant, when we shall grow all the sugar we can consume. Where the revenue will come from then he did not deign to say. He said, in explanation of the proposed repeal of the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty —a measure dictated in the interest of this promising beet industry—that if the treaty should remain in force it would result in giving a bounty to the Hawaiian sugar-producers amounting to more than $8,000,000. He added that "it was not contemplated when the original treaty was made, or when it was extended, that any possible advantage of this kind could ever result from its terms to the people of the Sandwich Islands." The truth is, that that is exactly what was contemplated by the original treaty, and that the opponents of it made the charge against it that such would be its effect, and that its supporters did not deny it. During the twenty years that it has been in force the effect here described by Aldrich has been frequently noted and commented on, and now Mr. Aldrich affects to be startled by it. He comes upon it as though it were a new thing not contemplated by Secretary Fish when he negotiated it, or by the Congress that sanctioned it. The treaty was always a grief to the sugar-refiners on the Atlantic seaboard, and it did work some injustice to them, although they were rather far away from the influence of Hawaiian competition. They want to get rid of it now, and they find some ready allies among the beet-growers of California. This accounts for the proposed repeal of the treaty.

Touching Mr. Aldrich's remarks on the chief feature of his party's policy, the New York *Tribune* and Philadelphia *Press* adopt a deprecatory tone, contenting themselves with such cautious remarks as the *Tribune's* that "it may fairly be doubted whether the act which secured the highest prosperity ever enjoyed by this country deserves the description of extreme tariff legislation." The New York *Press* thinks this altogether too mild a tone to adopt, calls Mr. Aldrich "Mr. Cleveland's new disciple," and considers it "much to be regretted that as clear a thinker as the Senator should have departed in the misty land of generalization where a late occupant of the White House was wont to roam." Moreover, Republican organs are constrained to admit that there are plenty of examples of "extreme tariff legislation" in the bill which Mr. Aldrich has reported. The first day's proceedings after the bill was taken up showed that the "blackmailing" character of the measure would be made perfectly plain before it got through the Senate. The finance committee increased the duty on borax from 2 to 5 cents a pound, without any other reason than that the Nevada Senators insisted upon it for the benefit of a few people in their State. Mr. White, a Democratic Senator from California, helped on the exposure of the trading by which alone the bill can get through, supporting the proposed increase and remarking "facetiously" that, "in the distribution of favors by this bill, he desired to have his State receive a share."

BOUNTIES FOR FARMERS.

Mr. David Lubin of Sacramento, Cal., has been engaged for some years in the endeavor to procure for the farmers of the United States an export bounty on agricultural products equivalent to the duty on imports which they pay by way of protection to manufacturers. At first Mr. Lubin was laughed at. His scheme was so novel and apparently absurd that nobody took the trouble to answer him seriously. He kept at work, however. He was not daunted by the ridicule heaped upon him. He began to lecture before the granges and to send circulars and pamphlets to farmers. He prompted them to discuss the matter among themselves, and to send petitions to Congress praying for the enactment of a bounty law. Gradually he found listeners and helpers. Several State granges endorsed his plan. Then he turned his attention to the clergy, urging them to take it up on the score of justice and equity. Here he met with considerable success, especially in the city of Philadelphia. Mr. Lubin is a devout protectionist. The clergymen of Philadelphia are devout protectionists. They, or a majority of them, have formed a sort of Lubin League to promote the bounty plan by legislation and to make it a feature of the pending tariff bill.

Mr. Lubin has lately been in New York seeking to enlist clergymen in this city in the same endeavor, and has, we believe, met with some success. And now he has found an advocate in the Senate of the United States in the person of Mr. Cannon of Utah. This gentleman has offered an amendment to the tariff bill embodying the Lubin plan, which provides for the payment of a bounty of 10 cents per bushel on wheat exported, and corresponding rates on corn, rye, flour, hops, cotton, and tobacco. We commend the brief speech which Mr. Cannon made when he offered the amendment to the attention of all good tariff men. If anybody is disposed to take it as a joke and a travesty on the doctrine of protection, that would be a grave mistake. No Senator who listened to Mr. Cannon made that mistake.

Senator Sewell asked Mr. Cannon where the money was to come from to pay these bounties, and Mr. Cannon replied that there would be no difficulty about that. They could stop building iron-clads for a few years and save enough to pay the wheat bounty in that way. He might have added, and he probably will add at the proper time, that $15,000,000 can be saved by passing the Loud post-office bill to cut off leeches who are preying on the postal revenues, and that an equal sum can be saved by stopping the river and harbor profligacy. Another large sum can be saved by stopping the public-building profligacy. In fact, Mr. Cannon is right in saying that there will be no difficulty in finding the money if Congress decides to do the thing. It is only a question whether it shall go to the farmers or to somebody else. It is at bottom not a question of ways and means, but of justice. The present system of taxing the farmer for the benefit of the manufacturer without making him any return, Mr. Cannon calls "robbery." He called it by that name several times in the course of his speech, and said that in using that phrase he did so as a Republican and a protectionist. None of his fellow-Republican Senators looked at the matter in the light of a joke. They were all very serious.

Having succeeded in placing his theory beyond the reach of derision, Mr. Lubin has half won his victory. He has done what the free-trade leagues, the tariff-reform clubs, and the Southern briga-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

diers never could do. He has approached the farmers on the protectionist side, and although he has used the same arguments that have been addressed to them a thousand times by the free-traders, he alone has gained their ear. The free-traders have said to them in effect: "You are paying all the expenses of government and a still larger sum in bounties to monopolies besides. Why don't you join us in repealing these bounties? Then you will get your goods cheaper, and the manufacturers will pay their share of the national taxes." Mr. Lubin says, and firmly believes, that the bounty system is right, but that it is one-sided. Give the farmer his share and it will be perfect. This is a very telling argument with men who believe in protection, but do not hear the jingle of its coins in their own pockets. And when a farmer comes to take the Lubin view, he is not far from denouncing as robbery a system which fails to reimburse him.

It is hardly to be expected that Mr. Cannon's amendment to the tariff bill will be adopted. The Populists will vote for it. The Silver Republicans may do so. The Democrats could fasten it on the bill if they desired. But all the indications are that they want the bill to pass, and hence will not vote for any amendment that would kill it. The straight Republicans will vote against it because it completely rips up their system. Yet they ought not to object to the payment of bounties from the Treasury on any grounds of principle. They voted a direct bounty for home-grown sugar in the McKinley bill, and paid it for several years. Why should they not vote one to the wheat-exporters in the Dingley bill? Is sugar-planting more meritorious than wheat-growing? Are the Louisiana cane-growers entitled to more consideration than the Dakota wheat-farmers or the Nebraska corn-planters? Let us have a little logic infused into this subject, men and brethren. Mr. Lubin seems to have been specially raised up to render you this service.

THE FRENCH WOOLLEN INDUSTRY.

Since August, 1894, foreign wools have had free entry into the markets of the United States. Before passing judgment upon the success or failure of the experiment, it will be of interest to give some attention to the movement of wools in the markets of the great manufacturing countries—France, Germany, and England—countries that have not for many years imposed any customs duty on raw wools. France offers the closest resemblance to the United States, as she has at home and in Algeria a wool interest that might demand her protective care on the same grounds that the wool-growers of Ohio, Idaho, or Montana rest their claims on Congress. In 1893 France received 20,000,000 pounds of wool from Algeria, and in 1896 only 9,341,200 pounds. The Algerian wool-grower would appear to have just as good a case as Judge Lawrence, if not better, for in 1893 Algeria supplied only 4.2 per cent. of the total quantity of foreign wools imported into France, and even that small footing in the French market is slipping away under the stress of competition from other lands.

The chief interest in the wool figures of France is to be found in the sources of foreign wool, for both in quantity and direction of import great changes have occurred since 1893. The tendency has been to obtain more from the countries of immediate production, and less through intermediate markets. In 1893, nearly 93,000,000 pounds was credited to England; in 1896, only 80,000,000. In the former year Belgium occupied the third place in importance, with 81,600,000 pounds; in 1896, that country had almost ceased to be a source of wool, sending only 4,400,000 pounds. On the other hand, the imports of wools from Argentina rose from 175,200,000 pounds in 1893 to 237,170,000 pounds in 1896; from Australia they more than doubled, increasing from 47,000,000 pounds to 113,320,000 pounds, and the imports from Uruguay swelled in nearly the same proportion—from 13,560,000 pounds to 34,553,000 pounds.

The French manufacturer has followed the economic development of the wool-growing industry, and has sought his raw material in those countries which possess the highest ability to produce wool — Argentina, Australia, Uruguay, and Spain. As a result he obtains all the wool he needs, at prices which are no more than his German or English competitor pays, and he provides a stable demand for the fleeces offered in the world's markets. In 1893, the imports into France were 469,800,000 pounds, and the average price was about 12.4 cents a pound. In no year since have the imports fallen below that figure, and in 1896 they rose to 554,052,000 pounds, at an average price of about 11.5 cents a pound. As every pound was entered for use in domestic manufactures, there is little evidence of great depression in the woollen industry, and still less evidence of the fulfilment of the prediction of American protectionists, that free wool here would so disturb the world's demand that prices would undergo extreme fluctuations. For three years foreign wools have ruled in the French market at the unchanging price of 1 fr. 41 c. the kilogram. In 1894, France had 20,721,850 sheep and lambs, and the number has tended to decrease from year to year. Yet a proposition to impose a duty on foreign wools in order to "protect" the sheep of France or Algeria would be regarded as a joke, and would not be seriously entertained.

Imports of foreign wools have thus been required in increasing quantities by France since 1893 to feed her great woollen industry. A proper apprehension of the true condition of this wool industry may be obtained from the figures of exports; and the exports to the United States of manufactures of wool will have peculiar interest to our manufacturers at this juncture. The largest item of French exports consists of cloths of pure or mixed stuff, and in the last four years the total exports and the exports to the United States were:

Year.	Total. lbs.	To United States. lbs.
1893	25,136,108	1,531,228
1894	23,933,460	1,125,982
1895	31,648,826	4,043,591
1896	30,965,440	2,442,220

The interest attaching to this table lies in the demonstration that of an increased export in 1895 of 7,700,000 pounds, only 2,917,609 was sent to the United States. And the loss of 1,601,371 pounds in 1896 in the American export was accompanied by a loss of only 683,400 pounds in the total movement. The spurt of exports to the United States in 1895 was speculative; but the French exports to other parts of the world have risen in even greater proportions, and it is untrue to describe conditions of the industry here as so abnormal as to require a special cure. There must have been a legitimate demand for French cloths which would have been met whether wool had been made free in 1894 or not.

In a second important class of French woollen exports, that of dress goods, the record is somewhat different. The total since 1893, and the share coming to the United States, are shown by the following figures:

Year.	Total. lbs.	To United States. lbs.
1893	21,570,000	886,000
1894	20,441,177	492,010
1895	31,651,076	2,977,960
1896	27,302,660	2,416,920

In this case the fluctuations are more violent, but again it is seen that the demand from the United States gave only a part of the increase, and the decrease in 1896 was almost independent of the American market. In the light of these returns, is it not clearly wrong to attribute any of the depression in our home woollen industry to the competition of the French manufacturer?

One more comparison may be made before leaving this subject. In 1895, when the full effect of the reduction in duties in our tariff had made itself felt, the value of all woollen goods exported from France touched $64,600,000. Not for two years had the exports been over $56,000,000, and yet the returns for the years 1889, 1890, 1891, and 1892 were all in excess of those for 1895. If any conclusion can be drawn from these returns it is that the French manufacturer of woollens has long enjoyed a wide market in which to buy his raw wools, and is obtaining yearly a wider market in which to sell his products.

That our markets have been "flooded"

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

with the wool manufactures of France is untrue. In fact, the imports were larger under the law of 1890 than they have been since. From the Treasury returns this becomes apparent:

Year.	Cloths.	Dress Goods.
1891	835,406	7,401,410
1892	801,515	7,353,316
1893	665,940	7,348,592
1894	332,617	3,795,432
1895	598,167	4,818,850
1896	620,220	6,290,344

Against these figures, so suggestive of themselves, may be stated the fact that imports of raw wools from France in 1890 were larger by one-half than in any previous year since 1890, and larger than any year has recorded since the first year of import. In 1880 the highest previous import occurred—12,715,011 pounds; but in 1896 these figures were exceeded—13,279,720 pounds. So that our manufactures have not suffered from the woollen manufactures of France, and have enjoyed some advantage in being able to import raw wools from that country.

SALVATION BY NOISE.

A few months ago a rupture in the celebrated Booth family of Salvationists precipitated the element of nationality into the question of salvation. Put in concise form, the issue raised at that time was: "Do we as a people want English salvation or American salvation?" Mr. Ballington Booth, speaking in the light of several years' experience among us, took the position that we ought to have our own kind of salvation, a genuine American brand, and that the English brand was not adapted to our needs. Mr. Depew flung himself with characteristic abandon on the side of Mr. Ballington Booth, saying: "Americans want to get their salvation by way of Bunker Hill and Faneuil Hall, and the old gun at Lexington, instead of by way of London," and his words touched so deep a chord of patriotism in American bosoms that a mass-meeting was held in Carnegie Hall, and Mr. Ballington Booth was sustained with strong resolutions and much fervid eloquence. Encouraged by this support, he started a genuine American salvation army, called the Volunteers, and has since been dealing exclusively in that brand of salvation.

His place at the head of the old Army, which gets its salvation "by way of London," was taken by Mr. Booth-Tucker, who is now under condemnation by an American jury for maintaining a "public nuisance" under the guise of a Salvation Barracks. This verdict, it seems to us, must be taken as a vindication of Mr. Depew's position of last year. It shows unmistakably that a considerable section of the American people in this city do not like the British brand of salvation. Some of the chief objections they made to it on the witness-stand were that there was too much noise attendant upon its dissemination. Sleep was made impossible, boarding-houses were depopulated, and the yelling which accompanied such special ceremonies as the "Grand-hallelujah eye-opener," "dedication of a Heavenly Babe," the "burning of the devil," and a "prayer of agony" could be heard "all over the Ninth Ward." Evidence in support of this view of the British method of dispensing salvation was given by a large number of witnesses, and was not refuted except by general denials by the Salvationists themselves. No neighbors were adduced to testify that they had not been disturbed, or, what is equally important, had been spiritually improved by the exercises in the Barracks.

The defence put forward by Mr. Booth-Tucker and his British associates was, if we may be permitted to say so, curiously un-American. It betrayed throughout an inability to comprehend the brand of salvation which is wanted in the Ninth Ward and, presumably, in other parts of our common country. It was urged, in the first place, in defence of the noise which the salvation bands of cornets, bass and snare drums, tambourines, and cymbals pour forth, that it is "an exact adaptation of the old Mosaic Hebrew style of worship." That may be true, but is it any reason why the people of the Ninth Ward should be asked to like it? There are many other Mosaic Hebrew religious rites, an exact adaptation of which would not do at all in the Ninth Ward. If Mr. Booth-Tucker were to attempt them, he would fare much worse than he has done at the hands of this jury. Then, too, it is said that the neighbors acted much worse than the Salvationists, for when they heard the music of the bands they assembled in their back-yards adjoining the Barracks, and beat upon tin kettles and pans. What did this conduct show? Did it indicate that salvation was working its way into their hearts? Quite the contrary. Why did it not occur to Mr. Booth-Tucker and his brigadiers and captains that there was something defective about their methods when, instead of arousing feelings of inward peace and joy and brotherly love, they set all the neighbors to acting in this violent and angry manner?

Other phases of the defence betrayed the same curious inability to grasp the situation. One of the generals said it could not be possible that the music of the bands and singers was bad, because she had herself "received a magnificent musical education, and had such an appreciative ear that discordant noises would have driven her away from the meetings." But the neighbors, sitting up in bed throughout the night, being endowed with less magnificently trained ears, did find the music discordant, and were not moved to embrace salvation because of it. That is the point. The object of the Salvation Army being the spread of true religion throughout the world, it is a mistake in policy to adhere to methods which are so notoriously spreading the chief qualities of irreligion—wrath, profanity, and hatred of one's fellow-men.

Mr. Booth-Tucker does not say he will make less noise or better noise, and change his methods, and thus seek to spread salvation in the Ninth Ward, but declares himself to be the victim of persecution, says he shall continue his methods, hopes that the churches of the land will come to his defence, and charges that the verdict amounts to the creation of a new law "prohibiting the workingman from meeting to pray while the rich man is allowed to meet under precisely similar circumstances to dance." Does he mean to say that the workingman prefers to do his praying under circumstances precisely similar to those under which the rich man dances? If he does not mean that, what has he in his mind? He says that he expects the verdict "will lead to a flood of persecutors all over the country," that every unreasonable neighbor who imagines he has a grievance against the beat of the Army drum, indoor and out, will now appeal confidently to every local justice who has a grudge against the Salvation Army. What does this show but that the noises of the Army are unpopular everywhere, and that they are interfering with the spread of salvation? But Mr. Booth-Tucker does not infer the need of change in his methods. We fear he is incurably unable to grasp the needs of Americans in this field. He has the best of evidence that his British brand of salvation is unpopular everywhere, yet he persists in cramming it down the American throat.

JAPANESE POLITICS.

TOKYO, May 1, 1897.

The prophet of Japanese political transformations runs unusual risks. It is not only at a time of crisis that the unexpected happens; the unexpected evolves, as it were, from the most obviously predictable situations. For instance, it is easy to understand why the Chinese anticipated an easy victory during the late war from the apparently hopeless struggle between Government and Parliament. But it is also possible to see how they proved utterly mistaken, and learned that, when war was once declared, the Parliament, Government, and people of Japan stood shoulder to shoulder. No one doubts that the Japanese, in contradistinction to the Chinese, are a patriotic people, and in the presence of a common enemy will reconcile differences of opinion. What is more difficult to understand is how, after engaging in a Parliamentary struggle for years, they can suddenly relinquish it at a time when all the political elements seem to be distinctly favorable to success.

Ever since the first session of Parliament the majority of its members, comprising the two great political parties, the Jiyuto and Shimpoto, have asserted that they were contending for the realization of a political

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

principle. They were aiming at the overthrow of the Sat-cho and the establishment of the English system of party government. During the war, the various political parties for the time being abandoned their hostile attitude, and, for the sake of victory abroad, united loyally with the Government in power. Up to that time this had been the single exception to their consistent opposition. After the war, the Jiyuto once more waived the great point of discussion and united with the Ito Cabinet, but they defended this act on the ground that post-bellum measures required this alliance, and they saved their consistency by demanding a place in the Cabinet for their leader, Count Itagaki. Their action could at least be construed as a partial movement towards the desired goal, inasmuch as Marquis Ito openly acknowledged his dependence upon the support of the Jiyuto. But the Shimpoto, with their leader, Count Okuma, denounced the proceeding. They declared that the Jiyuto had sold its birthright for a mess of pottage, and had allied itself with the Government merely for the sake of such rewards as the Government could confer. By implication, the leaders of the Shimpoto conveyed the idea that they were the repositories of pure political principles. They asserted their own political integrity, and declared they would continue the struggle till the Government yielded.

When the Ito Cabinet fell and Count Okuma became a member of the new Cabinet, public attention was keenly directed to his movements. Had he accepted a portfolio on his own terms, or had he too succumbed to the temptations of office? If the latter, then his party could not consistently support the Government during the next session of Parliament. The Cabinet itself was not a coherent one, and was therefore undeniably weak. Even if it counted on the support of the Shimpoto, it would still be far from having command of a majority in the Lower House. At most this party was not certain of more than ninety-five votes out of a total of three hundred. If the National Unionists should join their thirty-three votes with the Jiyuto, who had at least one hundred and five, the Opposition, with the help of a few independents, could easily throw out any measures of the Government, or force it to resort to dissolution. Even if the National Unionists stood aloof from the Liberals, it was still by no means certain that the Cabinet could secure the requisite majority. For a time even the Shimpoto seemed somewhat lukewarm. Both the other political organizations were either hostile or indifferent, and as the Cabinet itself represented no principle worth fighting for, the general impression was that the next session might end in total failure.

Up to the very beginning of the opening of Parliament the situation was critical. The Jiyuto finally issued a manifesto, in which it announced that it would oppose the Cabinet and unite with all members who desired the overthrow of the present Government. The Unionists generally preferred an independent course, though at first they affiliated with the Jiyuto. The Shimpoto, throwing consistency to the winds, declared openly in favor of the Government. The leaders of the latter party made a specious apology to their constituents by urging that the present Cabinet promised more liberal measures, as, for instance, the emancipation of the press, than its predecessor. But the great majority of the metropolitan newspapers were suspicious of the alliance between the Shimpoto and the Cabinet, and doubted whether it would result in any successful legislation.

The session had scarcely advanced two weeks, however, when a strange phenomenon was noticed in political circles. Members of the National Unionist and Radical parties, sometimes in groups and sometimes as individuals, began to sever their connection with their respective party organizations. Nor was this defection confined to the unimportant members—it embraced some of the leading spirits of both parties, men who had been identified with these organizations for many years. The reasons or excuses offered for thus leaving their colleagues in the lurch were trivial and often absurd. It was alleged that the leaders of the party were too ambitious and often acted in a high-handed manner, or that the party organization had become corrupt by its previous alliance with the Government. Fully one-half of the Unionists and about twenty-five of the Radicals seceded, and, wonderful to relate, all the seceders voted with the Government and not against it, as their party organizations had previously agreed to do. The Government no longer suffered any uncertainty. It had an overwhelming majority that voted regularly, with or without discussion, for every Government measure. The united Opposition controlled scarcely a hundred of the three hundred votes of the Lower House, and even this small opposition suffered from a certain lethargy consequent upon the loss of some of its leading members.

How the Government succeeded in securing this firm and united majority is a mystery that has vexed the press of Tokyo for many weeks. That some form of seduction was employed which neither the Government nor its victims would like to make known to the world, is beyond dispute, but the precise nature of the douceur is probably not so clear as many journals affect to know. The *Jiji Shimpo* directly charges the members of the House with accepting bribes from the Government. In one of its issues it contained a sarcastic note to the effect that "as the political dispute at the present day in Japan is merely a contest of individuals, and no serious difference of principles is involved, the only programme for a government desirous of commanding a majority in the House is to take steps to conciliate the good-will of the members. In every undertaking the main purpose is to achieve the maximum of success at a minimum of trouble and cost. Hence it is not strange that the Cabinet should adopt the easiest method of securing the support of its members, namely, bribery, which is said to be the most efficacious and simplest weapon available."

But while the Government may have resorted to the direct purchase of votes with money, it by no means has exhausted its efforts in this single expedient. It has had still further means at its command to secure the adherence of its former opponents. This is no less than the familiar spoils system. Count Okuma and Count Matsugata have done more than any preceding cabinet in Americanizing the Japanese administration in this respect; only in America the system, it is fair to hope, is in a moribund condition, while in Japan no one can prophesy its future possibilities. Already ten members of the pro-Government party have been rewarded with governorships or prefectures, and ten others have been appointed to important offices in the various ministries. Still others are likely to be appointed unless public opinion should be aroused to such a pitch that even the present triumphant Cabinet will have to take warning. Not only have former officials been forced to resign, but new offices have been created, ostensibly for the sake of rewarding the adherents of the Government in the last session. It is a curious commentary on this mode of conducting party politics that the same complaint is raised in Japan that we are so familiar with in America, viz., the want of sufficient offices to provide for all the applicants. Several notices have appeared in the Tokyo newspapers that those who have been left unrewarded are beginning to show hostility to the Government for its want of fair dealing. Probably the Government will discover means for silencing this body of office-seekers, who, fortunately for Japan, are not so numerous as in America.

The work of the last session of Parliament has undone years of strenuous efforts on the part of its predecessors. The ease and celerity with which the Government succeeded in removing all opposition during the session just closed seems to prove that the development of political parties in Japan is quite below the point at which any of them could be intrusted with the responsibilities of actual administration. Recent experience will prove a severe blow to the efforts of the various parties to acquire a real hold upon the reins of government—a blow from which it may take years to recover, if, indeed, it does not permanently alter the direction of constitutional growth in Japan. How can, for instance, the Shimpoto demand the overthrow of the Sat-cho Cabinet in future, when that party succumbed immediately to the Government as soon as its chief took office under the Sat-cho administration? The Jiyuto, likewise, bereft as it is of one-third of its members, is in a demoralized condition, though the latest reports state that it will make a vigorous effort to recover its lost prestige before the next session.

G. D.

A MINIATURE REPUBLIC.

RIMINI, May 16, 1897.

I have, in travelling through the Italian cities, especially on the Adriatic coast, been struck with the resemblance of their history, *mutatis mutandis*—that is, making allowance for the difference of times, manners, religion, and knowledge—to that of our own cities, as far as we have gone. They all came out of the horrible darkness which overspread the land after the fall of the Roman Empire, as little municipalities, or small collections of men with common interests and fears and miseries, dependent on a wall of some kind for defence against rivals and massacres, for liberty to sow and reap their scanty crops, or carry on their rude and primitive manufactures. They were all equals, too. Every distinction of rank or family or prestige had perished in the immense catastrophe which had overtaken ancient civilization. When they met to arrange their common affairs, like the Venetian fishermen on their sandbanks, one man was as good as another. With them, the modern world started with equality. Very soon, however, the art of controlling deliberations, and leading them to a preconceived result, which we call "management," or pipe-laying,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

must have sprung up. Some men must have shown themselves fonder of "politics" than others, and must have been willing to take more pains than others to have their opinions adopted. In short, the "Boss" must have soon made his appearance, and have arranged things so that the public meetings must generally have been of his way of thinking. As soon as the supremacy of the Boss's influence was established, "Boys" must have risen around him, eager to do his bidding, and carry out his plans, and sing his praises and make his opponents uncomfortable. According to the manners of the times, these Boys must have been armed, and ready for acts of violence. Whenever the Boss found any one too troublesome, they silenced him. When he wanted a meeting packed, they packed it. Whenever he wanted opponents to stay away from it, they warned them that it would be healthier for them to remain at home.

There were no restraining constitutions or judges in those days. Every one of these little states was independent, and had nothing to fear or hope from outside interference, and anybody who got control of it was an absolute ruler. The Boss's Boys were known as his "Bravos," and he himself was called a "Prepotente." He built himself a castle, with dungeons in it, in which he put his enemies until he got time to cut off their heads or torture them. He levied such taxes and contributions as he pleased on the city and on the surrounding country. He carried on wars with the other Bosses, who were his neighbors. He hired the Condottieri to fight for him, when he fell short of Boys at home, and often committed the most horrible cruelties without resistance, or thought of resistance, from the unfortunate inhabitants. I am not able to prove every stage of this process, documents in hand, but I am satisfied, from all I hear and read, that no one can thoroughly understand the existence of what are called the "tyrants" in Italian cities in the Middle Ages, who is not familiar with the government of American cities to-day by universal suffrage. Every Italian city of that period had, I am certain, at one time or another, its Plattone or Crokerio before it had its "principe" like the Estes, or Malatestas, or Viscontis. Manners have changed: throat-cutting and confiscation of property are out of the question; but human nature has not changed, and the materials for "tyrants" still doubtless exist among us in rich abundance.

Two small Italian States formed exceptions to this rule—Venice and San Marino. Neither of them ever allowed the Boss to gain the upper hand. Venice entered on a career, one thousand years long, of extraordinary commercial and political success. But she had all around her the unconquerable sea, a defence which cost nothing, while it filled her coffers with gold and frankincense and myrrh from all quarters of the globe. The history of San Marino is even more wonderful, for San Marino has been a free and independent republic for fifteen hundred years, and is as well off to-day as ever it was.

Finding myself here at Rimini, within a few miles of its frontier, I determined to drive over and see for myself how the work was done. It was a bright forenoon, the country radiant with the luxuriant vegetation of the Italian spring, the road for a short way from Rimini sprinkled with peasants making their way home from the fair, with huge white oxen which they had either bought or been trying to sell. The fields were full of those toiling laborers who on Italian farms do so much of the work of beasts of burden, and whose patient industry, "homely joys, and destiny obscure" always excite my pity. When one considers the life they have led for a thousand years, one is surprised by their politeness, good humor, and cheerful acquiescence in their lot. For more than that period, whenever any neighboring Jingo felt that he needed some fighting for the improvement of his character, he went into Italy in search of it, where he met some other Jingo, and they killed each other savagely, destroyed the peasant's crops, burned his house, and left him and his family on the roadside, if they did not massacre them all. The Barbarians came first, and destroyed Roman civilization, and then the little towns fought each other, and the Guelphs fought the Ghibellines, and the Spaniards fought the French, and the French fought the Austrians, and the Saracens laid waste the coasts, and the Pope was always ready "to take a hand in the racket," on behalf of what I saw comically called (in a vainglorious inscription in honor of an Aldobrandini) "Republica Cristiana," namely, the Papal States. But, whoever danced, the poor peasants always paid the piper. Six miles away, the rocky eminence, rising precipitously out of the plain in which San Marino stands, could be seen, shining through the sunlight; and about two miles from it one crosses the little stream which forms the boundary of the republic. The climb is long and slow in spite of the skilful engineering of the road. Half-way up the declivity one enters a little town, known as the "Borgo," and which forms what one may call the business suburb of the capital. Higher far—700 feet—on the very summit of the long rocky ridge stands the official capital, a "Città" which is the original San Marino, begun, they say, 1,500 years ago by a saint of that name, who fled from the persecutions of Diocletian into what was then a wilderness. He hewed himself a bed in one of the biggest rocks, gathered followers around him, and practised the usual asceticism, and in the ordinary course of things should have founded a monastic order to be called by his name. But, instead of this, he founded a little state. He set his disciples to farming and weaving. He established a government on the top of the lofty ridge, to rule over the few miles of territory at the base, of which somehow he managed to obtain possession. As far back as one can penetrate into the Dark Ages, we find his republic covering the same narrow area. It has never either extended or restricted its confines. It built a castle and a church and town hall on top of the precipice, and houses and a wall around them to protect it from the *coups de main* of the neighboring "prepotenti." But it never sought to add to its possessions. Its population was about 1,500 twelve hundred years ago. It is the same to-day. The rocky eminence on which the "Città" stands was then 2,214 feet above the level of the sea; it is the same to-day. Its territory was then about twenty miles in circuit; it is the same to-day.

I had a letter of introduction to the Chief of Police, whom I sought in the Borgo, but he was absent. The Commendatore Malagola, the keeper of the State Archives at Bologna, had kindly given me another to the Secretary of State, and to him I made my way in the Città. It was a long and hard climb, though up a smooth modern road; but I got there eventually, wandered a little through the few narrow streets, looked out on the great world which lay below me, and then delivered my letter. In delivering it to his Excellency (which is his legal title) Domenico Fattore, the Secretary of State, I also delivered it to the Minister of Finance and to the Minister of Foreign Affairs, for these three offices are held by one person. He is essentially what we call a "plain man," of the Paul Krüger type, said to be exceptionally wise in council and well read. He was taking his noonday nap when my letter reached him, but pulled himself speedily together, and came to meet me in the new Municipal Building, which they have recently put up and opened with much ceremony. It looks astoundingly large and expensive, as many of these municipal buildings do in Italy, for the community which erects them. It has grandiose offices for all the functionaries, and a grand "Sala di Consiglio" on the model of that in Venice. We sat in this hall, and talked long in an odd, mixed tongue—his French being about as good (or as bad) as my Italian—of his state and its history and polity.

It is very proud of its history—a "thousand years of liberty and glory." It has steered its way through all the worst periods, repelling many attacks of covetous "principi," notably of Malatesta of Rimini, sometimes sword in hand, at others by diplomacy, without losing its independence, except once for a few months, through the treachery of one of the Pope's lieutenants, Cardinal Alberoni, in the seventeenth century. Its wonderful position made up for its want of numerical strength, in the days before roads, when an armed band could not stay long in any place for want of provisions. Its earliest government was a council or town meeting composed of all heads of families; but this became noisy and tumultuous, like our nominating conventions, and it was felt to be necessary for the safety of the State, surrounded as it was by so many formidable enemies, to confide the administration of its affairs to a smaller body. So a council of sixty was elected, twenty "nobili," twenty "cittadini," or tradespeople, and twenty "contadini," or farmers; and this council, which, of course, has had its vicissitudes, rules the Republic to this day. Where do they get the nobles? you will ask. Well, they get them from the descendants of the principal families of the place, which somehow started as noble in that night of time in which all real nobility has its origin. They became noble, in the beginning, probably by being richer and better armed and more expert in killing people than their neighbors. Some of these families trace their descents, I was told, for at least eight hundred years, and have sent out many a scion into the stormy arena of Italian politics, and many who have made some figure in diplomacy, literature, and law. These nobles do not sit in the Council by hereditary right—nobody does; but when there is a vacancy in any order a man of that order must fill it. But he does not fill it by popular election. The Council fills its own vacancies, so that, as far as I could make out, San Marino, though thoroughly democratic in its manners and ideas, is a democracy ruled by an oligarchy. That is, the democracy for its own safety and protection finds it necessary to give the con-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG.
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

trol of its affairs to a small body of its best men. A small state surrounded by huge neighbors, it cannot afford to play at politics, or make bunkum Jingo speeches, or give offices away as "plums." Government is real business, and has to be done as business. It cannot make too lavish drafts on the parliamentary talent of the community. It knows that it has only a certain number of men competent for legislative work, and it calculates that sixty is this number. It has two executive officers, called "reggenti," and a Minister of State, of Foreign Affairs, and of Finance; one man, as I have said, holding all three offices. The Reggenti have a tenure of only six months, and are elected by the Council. The others sit as long as the Council pleases. I was particularly struck by the wisdom of their judicial system. They found out early in their history that they could not get justice properly administered in such a small community by the friends and neighbors of litigants and criminals. So they get their judges from among advocates of the Roman bar, to whom they pay a salary for coming and "holding court" periodically. They have two or three Ministers at foreign courts, who render gratuitous service, and about as many consuls. My friend Commendatore Malagola, the keeper of the Archives at Bologna, and himself a distinguished author, who gave me the letter of introduction, is a consul of the Republic.

As may be readily imagined, their diplomatic business is not heavy. The only troubles they have had in modern times with other Powers in Italy have arisen from the convenience of the Republic as a place of refuge for criminals, political and other. The Italian malcontents of the old régime often fled to San Marino, and brought down on the Republic the ire of the Austrians and the Pope or the King of Naples. Garibaldi and the remnants of his army sought shelter under the wall, after his defeat at Rome in 1849, and the little State proudly refused to surrender him or expel him, though it politely asked him to leave, which he did, flying by night to Venice. Whenever any neighboring potentate has wanted to pick a quarrel with San Marino, it has always been by accusing it of sheltering malefactors, but the Republic has never failed to make a good defence. Very recently it had some differences with the Italian Government on this score, though the two states are generally on excellent terms, for, to its glory be it said, San Marino has never failed to show its sympathy with the patriotic aspirations of the Italian people. Its own quota of criminality is small. On the day of my visit, its prison, a ruined old castle on the very pinnacle of the rock, contained but three inmates, not for "furto," as my guide was careful to explain, but for fighting. They all had their heads out through a hole in the door of their cells, and seemed to be on easy and familiar terms with their keepers, an old man and woman who were backed up by an occasional gendarme. They seemed glad to see visitors, with whom they conversed on the topics of the day, and accepted twenty centesimi freely as an acknowledgment of the mistake of "society" in keeping them locked up.

As I looked down from the tower of this old castle on the collection of houses along the ridge of the rock, the Municipal Building, the Cathedral, the hospital, the University, it appeared as if the world could not show a political success compared to that of this little community. A good deal has doubtless been due to the romance of the situation. Even Napoleon I. for this reason had not the heart to meddle with it. When he owned Italy, he even proposed that it should take more territory, but it was wise enough to refuse. This moderation, with the industry, good behavior, and passionate love of the people for their Acropolis, has stood them in good stead, in spite of their freedom and republicanism. Like New England, San Marino has sent sons to more or less fame and success all over the Continent; but, I believe, no matter where they roam, and no matter what they become, the little republic holds their tenderest affections. One has only to see it rising out of the plain, both a fortress and a temple, to understand how this must be. The precincts of the cathedral contain the rocky bed which San Marino hewed for himself. He was both a saint and a statesman, a rare combination, and the community has prospered under such traditions as no other Italian state has. Each town has its patron saint, but the work he does for his protégée is not political: he cures diseases, protects cattle from lightning, prevents accidents and bad luck, but he does not teach the manly arts and the homely good sense which make and keep a people free. This San Marino has done for his worshippers, and no other saint has done it. One of the strangest mistakes about Italy in history is the notion that it ever embraced what is known among Protestant theologians as "Christianity." What happened was that the people substituted for the old Joves, Junos, Apollos a new set of deities called "saints," superintended by the Madonna and appeased or roused into activity by the same processes. But it cannot be honestly said that they have ever admitted God or Christ into the providential government of the peninsula. Very little seems to be said or thought about either. The country, in so far as it has any religion at all, is under the domination of the Madonna and the saints exclusively. The saints remind one much of American Senators or politicians in our "spoils" system. They are "influoences" rather than direct rulers. They accord or distribute all the favors or immunities that divine government has to bestow, just as our "influoences" distribute patronage; but where or how the Madonna or the saints get them, no worshipper troubles himself.

E. L. G.

HALLAYS'S BEAUMARCHAIS.—II.

PARIS, May 14, 1897.

Beaumarchais did not remain more than four days in the prison of Saint-Lazare, where Louis XVI. had sent him in a moment of ill-humor. The very day after he was set free all the ministers attended a representation of the "Mariage de Figaro," and, as a sort of compensation, Louis XVI. ordered that the "Barbier de Séville" should be played at the Trianon, and the Queen herself played the part of *Rosine*. Colonne, a short time afterwards, gave Beaumarchais 800,000 livres, due to him as indemnity for some of his ships which had been damaged.

Beaumarchais had already passed the age of fifty. He had become very rich. He thought of marrying the lady with whom he had been living for ten years, and who had given him a daughter. He bought a large piece of land, near the Rue St. Antoine, and began the building of a palace. But it was not his destiny ever to be quiet; he had a terrible quarrel with Mirabeau, to whom he had refused to lend money, on the subject of the first water company for Paris, which Beaumarchais had started with the brothers Perier. A certain Madame Kornmann, the wife of an Alsatian banker, had become the mistress of the royal syndic of Strasbourg, a grandson of Adrienne Lecouvreur and of Marshal de Saxe. A lawyer of Provence, named Bergasse, took in hand the case of Madame Kornmann, and wrote in Kornmann's name a virulent memoir, in which Beaumarchais was attacked as well as Madame Kornmann, her lover, Lenoir, the lieutenant of police, and a Prince of Nassau-Siegen. In vain did the Parlement suppress the memoirs of Bergasse as libellous: they produced a great sensation, and Beaumarchais lost all his popularity. When the Revolution broke out, he was finishing his house on the boulevard, which was just opposite the Bastille. He saw the attack on the Bastille, and asked to be charged with its total demolition, "in order that the adjoining houses might not be damaged." He was already denounced as an enemy of the people, and in order to conjure the danger he got himself elected Deputy of his district and a member of the Commune. He distributed much money, procured certificates of *civisme* (loyal citizenship); he was denounced nevertheless by the ex-Capuchin Chabot at the tribune of the National Assembly, as a forestaller of arms. He had bought in Holland 60,000 guns for the French Government, and, in order to obtain the contract, had given 748,000 francs as caution-money; but he had not yet received the guns when the populace invaded his house and made a search. Beaumarchais was arrested and taken to the prison of the Abbaye. He was, fortunately, set free again, by the intervention of Manuel, the 20th of August, 1792, a few days before the September massacres. Manuel had for his mistress a former mistress of Beaumarchais. Among the manuscripts of the British Museum is the singularly warm correspondence between Beaumarchais and this lady, which could not be published *in toto*.

After Beaumarchais had left the Abbaye, he took refuge in the country, at a little distance from Paris. He obtained from Lebrun a passport for Holland, and had to go to London, where he was for a short time put in prison for debt. Under a false name, he went through Europe from place to place, always trying to get his guns and to keep them out of the hands of the English. During his peregrinations, he learned at Hamburg that his name had been put on the list of the émigrés, that his property had been sequestered, and his family imprisoned. His wife, his sister, and his daughter were saved from the guillotine only by the 9th Thermidor. For three years he lived at Hamburg in the most miserable condition. He could raise no money; England had laid hands on his guns, and his caution-money was lost.

On his return to Paris, he picked up the fragments of his fortune, and married off his daughter. He was possessed with a mania for writing which the modern specialist would call graphomania, sent memoir after memoirs to the legislators, occupied himself with politics and with the guidance of balloons; he remained a schemer to the end. Though he complained of having been

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ruined by the Revolution, he left to his daughter an income of 20,000 francs, besides real estate and furniture valued at nearly 700,000 francs. He was stricken with apoplexy on the 18th of May, 1799, and was buried in a corner of his garden.

M. André Hallays, after having given in his book the details of the life of Beaumarchais, has interesting chapters on his character and that of his works. His character, it is almost needless to say, is not commendable in any way; his contemporaries expressed contempt for him at a time when morality was very lax. M. de Loménie attempted to whitewash Beaumarchais to some extent, and proved the falseness of some accusations which had been made against him. But enough remains to show that, in the words of Jules Sandeau, who received Loménie into the French Academy, "the memory of Beaumarchais will always lack that flower of esteem which neither reputation nor glory can replace, and which goes by the simple name of consideration." Beaumarchais had two reputations, according to M. Hallays, one public and one private. The first was detestable; the second was better. Beaumarchais seems to have been much beloved by his relations and friends, and to have been capable himself of sincere and ardent affection.

It is more interesting to study his literary work than himself. The writer and his work can, however, never be independent of each other; and, in a way, *Figaro* is Beaumarchais himself—Beaumarchais transformed into a type, and, one may say, an immortal type. The rest of his literary work has become ignored, and justly so; but *Figaro* is as alive to-day as he was in the last century. Had *Figaro* any predecessors in French literature? is a question asked by M. André Hallays. Ought we to look upon him as the son of the valets of Lesage, of Marivaux? Did Beaumarchais borrow from 'Gil Blas'? Beaumarchais found chiefly in himself the elements of his immortal comedies, the "Barbier" and the "Mariage." All is reminiscence in them:

"Reminiscences of his early youth! We have seen Beaumarchais at the age of fifteen confiding to his sisters the history of his first passion, and playing the part of *Chérubin*, Cherubino d'amore, the playful and ardent page.—Reminiscences of the court! It was at Versailles that he learned the trade of a courtier, either in person, or in trying to defeat those who wished to play the part at his expense—a trade the secret of which *Figaro* gives in the three celebrated words, 'To receive, to take, and to ask.'—Reminiscences of Spain! He assumed at Madrid the names, the costumes of his personages, and their *séguedilles*.—Reminiscences of the Palais de Justice! It was there that he took, from nature, the portraits of *Bridoison*, of *Doublemain*."

As for *Figaro*, he is Beaumarchais himself; there lies the great originality of the type; the painter has made his own portrait. *Figaro* is vain, he has an invincible gayety, he loves intrigue; he is, with all his vices and appetites, a precursor of the French Revolution.

The younger Dumas wrote in 1869: "If Beaumarchais, when he flung the 'Mariage de Figaro' at the head of his epoch, did not aid the movement of ideas and of facts external to the stage—if he was not a revolutionist like a journalist or an orator, like Camille Desmoulins or Mirabeau, I don't know what to say." Beaumarchais had no fixed ideas in politics, he had no theoretical conceptions regarding the forms of government, he was not a republican by principle. He spoke in a letter to the King of France, written in 1775, of "that licentious rage which the English call liberty"; he had no desire to change anything in the state or in society; he has not much to say even against the *lettres de cachet*, and finds it convenient at times to make use himself of this arbitrary method of getting rid of an adversary.

All these reserves made (and I could find a hundred passages in Beaumarchais's works or letters to show that they ought to be made, and to prove that Beaumarchais had nothing in him of the political reformer), it cannot be denied that he had much to do with the social revolution which was the real aim of the Revolution. The characteristic of the "Mariage de Figaro" is the antithesis between *Figaro*, the self-made man, the plebeian, and *Almaviva*, the born lord of the land, the nobleman. The Baroness of Oberkirch, after the representation of the "Mariage de Figaro," wrote: "The *grands seigneurs* laughed at their own expense, and, what is worse, they made the others laugh. They will repent it some day." Rivarol wrote justly that the Revolution was made not against the kingly government, but against the nobility. "Who would believe it?" he asks; "what most irritated the nation was not taxation, nor the *lettres de cachet*, nor the other excesses of authority, nor the vexations of the intendants and the ruinous delays of the law; it was the oppression of the nobility, towards whom the nation manifested the most bitter hatred." And it was against this oppression of the nobility, this tyranny of a caste, that *Figaro* raises his voice. *Figaro* represents that Third Estate, of whom Sieyès asked: "What is the Third Estate? Nothing. What ought it to be? Everything."

Beaumarchais's protest would have been lost and forgotten if it had taken the grave and pompous form of some philosophical essay; in a light and gay comedy it became formidable, as it took hold of the people. Some of *Figaro's* words immediately became proverbial, and have remained so to this day. M. Hallays says:

"The attacks against the nobility have now only an historic interest. The privilege of birth remains in our society—in the midst of democracy we see proofs of it every day; but if it assures to certain persons a worldly preëminence, it cannot again become the foundation of a caste. The laws enacted during the Révolution, the creation of a new aristocracy by Napoleon, and especially the money power, have completed the work of the philosophers of the 18th century."

This is a superficial view of the subject. The Napoleonic aristocracy has been merged more and more into the old aristocracy; the money power abdicates willingly before the imaginary power of great names. The sons of the nobility find the largest dowers, and remember the saying of Mme. de Sévigné: "A little manure is necessary to the best lands."

Figaro is still popular; he remains the living protest against the inequality of human condition, and no revolution, no system of government can realize a complete equality. The powers of imagination are the most subtle and the most indestructible. A good sequel to "Figaro" will be found in the "Gendre de Monsieur Poirier." There we find in contact and in opposition the spirit of caste and the solid power of money. The "Gendre de M. Poirier" may not live as long as "Figaro"—it has not the brilliant wit of Beaumarchais; but I would advise all who wish to understand France well to read the two plays and to compare them.

Correspondence.

"THE ANTIQUITY OF WELLERISMS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of May 11, Dr. Gudeman, writing under the above-given caption, says: "An exact parallel is, however, found in an author who antedates Petronius by more than three centuries," and, after a few pleasant remarks on the famous xv. Idyl of Theocritus, quotes the following: ἔνδοι πᾶσαι, ὁ τὰν νυὸν εἶπ' ἀποκλάξας, which he translates thus: "'They are all in,' said the man, as he locked out his bride," and in the succeeding paragraph adds: "For similar instances of proverbial expressions, followed by a ridiculous and unexpected epilogus, see, etc."

Dr. Gudeman's sense of humor seems to have led him astray in interpreting this passage, for, so far was the man from locking *out* his bride that he actually locked her *in*. See the Scholiast on Theocrites xv. 77, Meineke, in his note to this passage, and Fritsche. Snow says: "Here we have a proverb derived from the custom of the bride being accompanied home by her bridesmaids, who were then shut out by the bridegroom. The ἀπο in ἀποκλάξας implies separation from the rest. Translate thus: 'We are all inside—as the man said when he had shut in his bride.' Πᾶσαι, feminine, implies that he has all the girls he wants." For the custom of shutting *in* the bride, we might also cite Theocritus xviii. 5."

Perhaps it will not be amiss to give the versions of several translators of this delightful idyl. Mr. Calverley renders it thus:

"'All in,' the bridegroom said,
And locked the door upon himself and bride."

Mr. Lang, in his charming translation, renders it as follows:

"We are all on the right side of the door, quoth the bridegroom, when he had shut himself in with his bride."

Mr. Arnold, in his 'Essays in Criticism,' gives the following rendition:

"We are all of us on the right side of the door, as the bridegroom said, when he had locked himself in with his bride."

The above-cited passages show conclusively that Dr. Gudeman is in error, into which he was probably misled by the false translation in Liddell and Scott, *s. v.* ἀποκλείω. Moreover, Dr. Gudeman's interpretation is wholly at variance with the customs prevailing at a Greek wedding. After the wedding-feast was concluded, the bride, being veiled, was led into the bridal chamber, and the bridegroom closed the door. The Epithalamium was then sung before the door of the bridal chamber by a chorus of maidens (see the Scholiast on Theocritus xviii. 5). Ἀποκλάξας, therefore, refers to shutting off the bride from the bridesmaids, so that there can be no "ridiculous and unexpected epilogus" in the proverb.

In fact, Praxinoë was very felicitous in her quotation, and said just what we should expect under the circumstances. After being jostled in the dense crowd, and finally gaining an entrance into the "concert hall,"

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

nothing was more natural than that she should say: "All are in," *i. e.*, All are in, so far as we are concerned, and we don't care whether others get in or not; just as the bridegroom said from his heart, "All are in," *i. e.*, I have all the girls I want; and the real humor of the proverb lies in πᾶσαι, as has been pointed out by Fritsche, who, in his note to this passage, says: "Das Femininum πᾶσαι ist spöttisch mit Bezug auf die Jungfrauen, welche eindringen wollen, gesagt: es sind alle drinnen, welche drinnen sein müssen, d. h. nur die Braut."

Very respectfully, CHAS. W. BAIN.

SEWANEE, TENN., May, 1897.

Notes.

Harper & Bros.' June announcements include 'The People of Whom Shakspere Wrote,' by Charles Dudley Warner; 'Eye Spy,' a posthumous work on flowers and creeping things, by Hamilton Gibson; 'Bobbo, and Other Fancies,' by Thomas Wharton; and the second volume of Justin McCarthy's 'History of Our Own Times,' 1880-1897.

'The Chances of Death, and Other Studies in Evolution,' by Karl Pearson, together with 'Memories of the Months,' by Sir Herbert Maxwell, are announced for immediate publication by Edward Arnold.

Dr. D. G. Brinton's 'Religions of Primitive Peoples,' a series of lectures delivered during the past winter, will shortly receive a book form from G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Fleming H. Revell Co. have nearly ready 'The Culture of Christian Manhood: Sunday Mornings in Battell Chapel, Yale College,' collected by W. H. Sallmon, and 'Strategic Points in the World's Conquest: The Universities and Colleges as Related to the Progress of Christianity,' by John R. Mott.

Henry Holt & Co. announce 'The Gadfly,' a political novel, of which the scene is laid in Italy in the first half of the present century, by an anonymous writer.

R. H. Russell has in preparation 'The Knave of Hearts,' a Fourth of July comedietta, by Albert Lee, illustrated by Edward Penfield.

'Stories of Long Ago,' Greek myths related anew by Miss Grace H. Kupfer, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

Maynard, Merrill & Co. are about to publish 'The Young American,' by Dr. Harry Pratt Judson, Professor of Political Science in the University of Chicago.

A 'History of Freemasonry in Danvers, Mass., 1778-1896,' by D. A. Massey, will be issued by C. H. Shepard, Peabody, Mass.

We read in the May Bulletin of the New York Public Library that its current analytical catalogue of the Emmet volumes of MSS., portraits, and other illustrative material, will ultimately be reprinted in a volume of about 600 pages, with a full index, the edition being limited to 100 copies at five dollars.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, have made a timely reprint of an address, read five years ago before the Military Historical Society of Massachusetts, on "The Negro as a Soldier in the War of the Rebellion," by Norwood P. Hallowell, Colonel of the Fifty-fifth Regiment Massachusetts Volunteers (colored). Besides portraits of Col. Robert G. Shaw of the Fifty-fourth Massachusetts, and Col. Edward N. Hallowell of the same regiment, the brochure is illustrated by two normal illustrations of the "peculiar institution," viz., a white girl slave, and a man slave with lacerated back, both tender mercies of the cruel in Louisiana.

Mr. Stillman's *Century* article on his pet squirrels, "Billy and Hans, a True History," and a very touching plea for humanity towards the animal creation, has been printed as a little book by Bliss Sands & Co., London, with Miss Lisa Stillman's drawings of the pretty creatures. It will now continue its missionary work, and the proceeds of the sales will go to the benefit of a home for poor children requiring surgical treatment. The author has furnished an introduction in which he adduces evidence to show that squirrels are but little destructive of the tender shoots of trees, and certainly not to the extent implied in the ruthless slaughter of them encouraged on this pretext in European countries.

In key with the foregoing is a little collection of 'Songs of Happy Life, for Schools, Homes, and Bands of Mercy,' compiled by Sarah J. Eddy (Providence: Art and Nature Study Publishing Co.). Much of the music has been written expressly for the present work, as have poems by Miss Wilkins and others, while poems by Mrs. Celia Thaxter and Miss Edith M. Thomas have been for the first time set to music. The humane purpose is still further advanced by quotations from various authors in favor of education in humanity.

Mr. N. Jonsson-Rose's 'Lawns and Gardens: How to Plant and Beautify the Home-lot, the Pleasure-ground, and Garden' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is a well-printed book, which should prove of service to suburban residents who want to try their hand at a bit of landscape gardening. The laying out of the home-lot is a pleasure to all dwellers near the cities, but often the results do not give pleasure to their neighbors. By the inartistic grouping of plants, or by the absurd selection of species, the neighborhood may fairly have cause of complaint, yet nobody dares to call the attention of his neighbors to such errors of taste. Hence we welcome any book of the type of the present, even if there be something to criticise unfavorably. It is sure to give somebody hints as to agreeable effects around the house. 'Lawns and Gardens' offers no assistance to professional landscape gardeners.

In Charles S. Newhall's 'Vines of North Eastern America' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) the outline sketches leave much to be reasonably desired, from both an artistic and a botanical point of view. The text is spread over a good many pages of large type, forming a bulky manual, describing rather less than one hundred twiners, climbers, and creepers. It is difficult to see why the matter of this inconveniently clumsy book should not have been incorporated with the substance of its two predecessors, 'The Trees of North Eastern America' and 'The Shrubs of North Eastern America.' In fact, nearly all the plants treated of in the present work *are* shrubs, and appear rather lonesome without their non-climbing fellows. In a more compact treatise, on thinner paper, with smaller type, and more carefully drawn outlines, the subject-matter of the book before us would be in a convenient form for the out-of-door amateur. But it is possible that the author designed the book for the library instead of for the field and the hedgerow.

A posthumous volume by Jules Simon, 'Derniers Mémoires des Autres' (Paris: Flammarion; New York: Brentano), a sequel to his earlier 'Mémoires des Autres' and 'Nouveaux Mémoires des Autres,' seems like a seal to the many evidences of noble humanity and honorable citizenship which the long life and numerous publications of the author had furnished. Nearly all the characters in these narratives—woven out of truth and fiction and intermingled with moral, psychological, political, and sociological ideas and events—are natives of Jules Simon's own Brittany, whose true names are disguised. He himself, however, has a hand in all that happens, and, in spite of the title, what we learn of him is considerable and not the least interesting. The moralizing of the octogenarian does not detract from the interest of the stories; his tone is modest and conciliatory, as might be expected, and his manner charming, like Legouvé's. The volume is, like the two preceding ones of the series, prettily illustrated.

The *Neue Tageblatt* of Stuttgart calls attention to a neglected treasure by the announcement that the Suabian Schillerverein has bought the literary remains of the poet Uhland for 25,000 marks. They include manuscripts of poems and dramas, Uhland's diary from 1810-'20, important notes on political matters, and 900 letters by the poet, besides the answers to them. Prof. Erich Schmidt is at work on a new biography of Uhland based largely on these documents.

A characteristic anecdote of Schopenhauer is related by Friedrich Haase in his memoirs, now appearing in the *Moderne Kunst*. During the years 1856 to 1858, Haase was an actor in the Frankfurter Stadtheater, and lodged at the Englische Hof, where Schopenhauer took his meals. The great pessimist seldom spoke to his neighbors, but glanced at scientific periodicals in the intervals between the courses, and at the end, without greeting any one, he called to his poodle under the table, "Come, Mensch," and left. One evening Haase appeared as *Mephisto*. The next day Schopenhauer eyed him sharply and spoke for the first time: "Herr Haase, I heard you in 'Faust' last evening, and was deeply impressed by your performance." He added a few more remarks, and, when he got up to leave, said, "Adieu, Herr Haase," and to his dog, as usual, "Come, Mensch," with a jocose juxtaposition of "hare" and "man."

The *Publishers' Weekly* of this city has made arrangements with Sampson Low, Marston & Co. to publish in this country the Monthly English Catalogue of Books for 1897, at the subscription price of seventy-five cents. The first four parts are now ready for delivery.

The greater part of the *Geographical Journal* for May is taken up with a paper by Dr. Nansen on some of the scientific results of his expedition, and with a discussion by distinguished members of the Royal Geographical Society on the North Polar problem, in which Dr. Nansen also took a prominent part. The subjects treated were the islands discovered, the depth of the Polar Sea and the extraordinary temperature of its waters, the formation of the ice and its drift, and the fauna and flora of the floe ice, infusoria and diatoms, which are constantly travelling across the polar region, living every summer and freezing up in the ice every winter. Sir George Nares says that the expedition makes it evident that there is a dividing line across the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

polar area, somewhere from Bering Straits to Greenland, on the Asiatic side of which is light, floating young ice, and on the American side heavy palæocrystic ice. This does not probably imply the existence of land in this region, though there may be some small islands. Dr. Nansen closes with the advocacy of another expedition in a vessel like the *Fram*, but better fitted with laboratories for the most thorough scientific investigations. "Could an expedition of this kind go north through Bering Straits and enter the ice, thence in a northerly, or perhaps northeasterly direction, I think it would bring with it, when it eventually emerged into open water on this side of the pole, a sum of information which would quite put the *Fram* and her men in the shade."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for May describes a recent visit to the site of the great volcanic eruption of 1886 in New Zealand. The changes wrought by it, directly and indirectly, in the surrounding country are shown in the text and by topographic sketches and illustrations. Dr. Nansen's summary of the results of his expedition is accompanied by a remarkably fine map of the North Polar regions, giving the known limits of the floating and pack ice, and the ocean currents and soundings. It is interesting to note from it that the absolutely unknown part of the sea is that lying to the north of Alaska.

The "Geography of Gold" is the suggestive title of the opening article in the *Annales de Géographie* for May. It is by M. de Foville, "Directeur de l'Administration des Monnaies," and gives an historical summary, with numerous tables, of the production of gold from the most ancient times to 1896. M. de Foville thinks that the amount of gold in use in early days was comparatively very small, notwithstanding the numerous assertions to the contrary; that it actually decreased from the sixth to the tenth century of our era, and that the total production in Europe of the ten centuries preceding 1492 was less than ten cubic metres. The year 1896 will show, in his opinion, an increase over that of 1895, which he estimates at 1,075 millions of francs, or twice the product of 1883. From an interesting chart of the sources of supply, accompanying the paper, it appears that the present output in Australia, South Africa, and the United States is almost the same, Russia coming next with about two-thirds of this amount. The same number contains an interesting account of a district in Tunis, its natural features and inhabitants. Some of these are cave-dwellers, who occasionally still make new caves, though the necessity—security against marauders—has gone. Excavation is a work of such difficulty that it takes a year to excavate the dwelling of a rich man. A useful map of Crete shows the sites of the various towns and villages and the division of the inhabitants as to their religion.

The Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for April contains, in addition to the report of Dr. Bliss on the excavations at Jerusalem, several short papers by Dr. C. Schick, and a survey of the morals of the fellahîn, together with many of their curious customs. Some of these have a strong resemblance to those of Biblical times. Mr. Gray Hill's account of his visit to Petra includes a picturesque description of the passage of the Haj, or pilgrimage to Mecca. It consisted of between two and three thousand people on camels and carrying guns. Among them were some women in palanquins borne between two camels, one forward, the other behind.

The wide range of subjects treated in the Consular Reports is well illustrated in the issue for May. There are the usual reports upon commerce and manufactures in different parts of the world, and also a valuable account of the Yangtze Kiang region and its unexampled opportunities for trade; notices of bicycle regulations in Europe; fog signals for steamers, with a diagram; information for American women intending to study in Zurich, by a Wellesley College professor; a Belgian railway hospital-car; and new taxes in Mozambique. From this we learn that the license for a fresh-water dealer is $200 at Lourenço Marquez, while that of a keeper of a Kaffir grogshop is only $15. It is an interesting case of the protection of native industry, the water-dealers being "generally foreigners, but the grogshop keepers are usually Portuguese or half-breeds."

—With a fitness which no one will dispute, *Harper's Weekly* had the privilege of anticipating the unveiling of the Shaw monument in Boston on Monday last with a photographic cartoon of this masterpiece of Mr. Augustus St. Gaudens. The delay in the completion of the work—a life-size high-relief in bronze—has been pathetic in view of the fact that not a few of the more elderly subscribers have passed away in the meantime, their longing unsatisfied. But that deliberation which is the assurance of great art was never better justified than in the case of this monument, which takes its place in the forefront of American sculpture, and may challenge comparison with any similar memorial which our generation has seen produced in any country. The unity of the composition, the movement, the sentiment, are inexpressibly fine, while in the mounted figure of Col. Shaw the portrait and the legend are blended in the happiest manner. His men who hurry past and beside him are treated with admirable skill from the plastic point of view, and, thanks to the most patient study, their African faces and figures are in the highest degree typical and historical. If their guns aslant and the superb charger of their commander make one think of Velasquez's "Lances," the symbolic qualities of Mr. St. Gaudens's design bring to mind that canvas of Mr. Winslow Homer's, "Prisoners at the Front," in which North and South were spiritually contrasted in a way to make this too one of the noblest artistic "documents" of our civil war.

—An interesting account of the successful way in which the English are redeeming waste land in India is given in the *Church Missionary Intelligencer* for May. In 1892 work was begun on an irrigation canal for a tract of 3,500 square miles in the Punjab. As the land was rendered available for cultivation it was offered to three classes of colonists from the neighboring congested districts, "capitalists, who purchase large lots of 166 to 550 acres; yeomen, who purchase or receive as reward for good service to government, lots of 112 to 140 acres," and peasants, who are allowed lots of 7 to 52 acres, with certain remissions of taxes until they become, after a term of years, permanent tenants of Government. The success of the undertaking has been very great; 350,000 colonists, up to the end of last year, had entered the region, and were, according to the writer in the *Intelligencer*, exceedingly prosperous. "The crops were treading on each other's heels, and our friends, with their well-fed cattle and plump children, were hard put to it to finish pressing the winter's sugar-cane before cutting the spring wheat." Some of the scenes described resemble those accompanying the settlement of one of our Western mining towns. In March, 1896, the site of Lyallpur "was absolute jungle, with four flags at the corners to show its position." In December there was a flourishing town, reached by a railway, laid out with streets converging on an octagonal centre. The Punjabis are "flocking to the place from all quarters," and the colonization officer "has ceased selling plots for house and shop-sites at the rate first fixed, and is going to have a big auction in January, which he expects to bring in much money for roads and sanitation." The district, when settled, will probably contain more than a million people.

—The vast increase in the sources of knowledge, as well as the intense mental activity of the present day, are strikingly exhibited in the 'List of Periodicals, Newspapers, Transactions, etc.,' taken by the libraries of Boston and vicinity, just published by the Boston Public Library. It is a volume of more than a hundred pages, and gives the titles of several thousand publications, the great majority of which are scientific in the broadest sense of the word. As the respective depositories are indicated in each case, the List has an obvious value for students everywhere, and this value would have been greatly increased by a further indication of the practice of binding. For example, does the Boston Athenæum, which (strangely enough) alone currently receives the daily London *Times* and *Daily News*, preserve them in bound volumes? And from what date did it begin to do so? A few years ago we were unable to discover anywhere a file of the *Daily News*, going back to the beginning under Dickens's management, when Lowell was an American correspondent. The List is provided with a classified index which is decidedly helpful in more ways than one. The Trustees have also published a brief but interesting account of the extraordinarily rich collection of autographs, historical documents, manuscripts, and portraits, made by Judge Mellen Chamberlain, which it is his intention to bequeath to the library. An idea of its extent may be gained from the fact that it contains five volumes of letters and documents "relating to Benjamin Franklin, to John Adams, to John Hancock, to Samuel Adams, and Joseph Warren, and to those engaged, on both sides, in the battles of Lexington, Concord, and Bunker Hill." "One volume is given to the prominent Quakers who suffered persecution in Boston, in 1660, and one to the actors in the Salem witchcraft tragedy." While it is naturally strongest in American history and literature, the collection includes numerous autographs of European sovereigns, statesmen, writers, men of science, original drawings of celebrated artists, and manuscript compositions of musicians. A portrait and a biographical sketch of Judge Chamberlain accompany this little pamphlet, and there is a list of the autographs which are placed on public view.

—The monkeys of Gibraltar—the only ones

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

living in a wild state in Europe—have been made the subject of a learned monograph by Don Salvador Calderon, in the eighteenth volume of the Anales de la Sociedad Española de Historia Natural. The first known mention of these animals, which belong to the plebeian barrel-organ variety (*Inuus ecaudatus*), was made in 1789, in the Memoirs of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. There has been much discussion of the question whether they were originally imported from Morocco or were indigenous to Europe, furnishing proof, in the latter case, of the former connection of the two continents. The Arabs had a tradition that these animals came to Europe by a submarine passage known to them only. It is significant that the Mohammedan writers, in their descriptions of the newly conquered Iberian Peninsula, nowhere make any mention of monkeys. It is only since 1855 that statistical records of the monkeys have been kept at Gibraltar. At that time they seemed to be dying out. Brehm found only eleven in 1856, and a few years later the number was reduced to four. It was then replenished by the addition of several couples brought over from Tangier. This necessity of "colonization" led Blainville to express the opinion that these monkeys were descendants of a domesticated pair that escaped a century or more ago. Their threatened extinction forty years ago was largely due to the fact that many of them were trapped by the owners of fruit orchards which the monkeys used to pillage. This trapping was stopped by a special edict of the Government. At present the colony includes about twenty monkeys. They are seldom visible, except when water is scarce, and it is believed that their principal food consists of the roots and fruits of the dwarf palm (*palmito*), besides scorpions and other insects.

BENJAMIN JOWETT.

The Life and Letters of Benjamin Jowett, Master of Balliol College. By Evelyn Abbott and Lewis Campbell, with portraits and other illustrations. In two volumes. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1897.

It is fortunate that the life of Jowett has been competently recorded within four years of his death. Too long delay, such as postponed the Life of Stanley, has been prevented by the devotion of Messrs. Abbott and Campbell. The latter has written the first volume, covering Jowett's career up to the age of fifty-three, when he became Master of Balliol. "Lives," wrote Jowett in 1869, "like pictures, lose more than half their value by being unfinished." Jowett's earlier trials bore fruit in his later years, and therefore the greater interest centres in the second volume, written by Mr. Abbott. These last twenty-three years (1870-1893) are the climax. Our authors give a strikingly congruous picture of a life exceptionally at one with itself. The task of writing it was, if anything, more difficult than Dean Stanley's in preparing 'The Life and Correspondence of Thomas Arnold,' and the plan followed is much the same, except that the abundance and variety of interest in Jowett's correspondence make Jowett's Life far more interesting than Arnold's even. This cannot be denied, although Jowett himself truly said of Arnold that there has been no one like him in modern times "in the one respect of inspiring others with ideals." Indeed, we may say of the present biography what Jowett said of that of Robert Lowe (Lord Sherbrooke), "Gorgias," as he playfully called him: "It is not at all dull, any more than he himself was. It contains a true picture, not deformed as many biographies are by exaggerated affection and flattery." It would, we are confident, have pleased the subject of it himself. For with him biography was almost a religion, and when he lost a friend, his energies were instantly concentrated in an intense effort to understand him, in a close scrutiny of his life reappraised as a whole, and pondered in a singularly softened and almost contrite mood—a mood most fully expressed, perhaps, in his words after Dean Stanley's death: "I seem to see his character more truly now than when he was alive, and I feel that I could have done more for him if I had understood him better." This same mood again found expression ten years later in his college sermon upon the death of Lewis Nettleship.

A common ground occupied by both of Jowett's biographers, and giving unity to the two volumes, is their equal perception of his power in appreciating and portraying his various friends and contemporaries. "From time to time," Mr. Abbott says, "in his various note-books he makes lists of his friends, just as other men might put down lists of their possessions." So truly did Jowett make his friends a part of himself, that he excelled in the art, perfected by Plato, of dramatizing his own ideals reflected in and refracted from the lives of those he held dear. This rare gift is fully shown in what he says of his dearest friend Stanley: "A. P. S. was wonderfully good," he writes to a friend, "with a natural kind of goodness—blameless, innocent, never going wrong in word, thought, or act. He was not always trying to improve his character, but then he did not need it." This last remark serves to bring out Jowett's view of himself as bound to fight the strenuous battle of self-improvement. "I am long past forty," he wrote shortly before his election as Master of Balliol, "and I mean to improve myself pretty considerably, I can tell you." Ten years later, one of his curt memoranda runs: "I always seem to be beginning life again, and may I ever seem to be beginning life again until the end! I have the feeling that I have lost so much time that I can never have a holiday." In another note-book we read: "To rely on no one but myself, and to rely on myself." Dean Stanley's dread of being alone grew upon him, while we find Jowett again and again dwelling upon the good of being alone; for instance, one of his memoranda runs: "Must be more alone and get above phases of mind which come upon me in bad weather or when I am alone." And this brings us to another remark of Jowett's upon Stanley: "He was very impressible by circumstances," writes Jowett, "Oxford, Canterbury Cathedral, the Abbey, the Court, etc.; but he was absolutely regardless of popularity, and not at all a courtier." Jowett was certainly not devoid of sympathy with this impressibility, as he shows in his picture of the needs of invalids: "In their weakness," he writes, "they need strength and calmness and cheerfulness, and that the world should be made as much like the world they knew when in health as possible." Then he adds, in a strikingly Platonic vein, "They should look sometimes out of a window at fair scenes and be read to out of their favorite books; and be taught to trust in God, in whose hands they are, and to whom they return." Still, we must recognize that, so far as his own case was concerned, Jowett viewed such impressibility as something to be striven against and subdued. Prof. Campbell says of him that "the trials to which he had been subjected, and the effort involved in acting as if they were not, had given to his mental constitution the touch of iron." Jowett himself writes, in allusion to his trials which came after his Pauline Commentary and his essay on "The Interpretation of Scripture," and also in connection with the election to the Mastership of Balliol in 1854, "Let me tell you, I believe it to be a very good thing to have had a great row once in your life, because, though not quite pleasant at the time, it gives you a position and places you above the world."

Jowett again gives glimpses of his own mind in his short sketches of two great lawyers, Lord Westbury and Lord Justice Bowen. Of the former he writes: "He was a very remarkable man, and it grieves me to think how much his life was a *vie manquée*. People call him unprincipled, but that is not my view of him. He was a man of genius by accident converted into a lawyer. With extraordinary abilities and great cunning, he was also very simple and childish in some respects." Of Bowen, Jowett says in 1877, writing to Sir Robert Morier: "I think that you know Bowen, but you hardly know all his merits. He always seems to me one of the most gentle and honorable men I have ever known—a man of genius converted, perhaps crushed, into a lawyer, and probably the greatest English lawyer of the day." Jowett seems to be saying that both these men were great in spite rather than by virtue of their profession, and his distinction between the "man of genius" and the lawyer calls to mind Plato's contrast between the "philosopher" and the lawyer. Let us say, then, that it was Bowen the "man of genius" who spoke those memorably eloquent words in Balliol Hall hailing Jowett as a great man,* and who wrote to a cousin, wife of the Vicar of Cliveden, when Jowett was staying in her neighborhood:

> "If George, in the course of his sermon, casts his eye upon a small delicate face, belonging to a little figure with a high forehead and whitening hair [Jowett was but little over forty at this time, but his hair began to turn gray a little after thirty] and the look of a saint, he may be sure that he is preaching to the arch heretic whose throne is on the banks of the Isis. I do very much hope that some fortunate accident may bring him in your way. . . . Though he is very silent and reserved, he is a man of such taste and moral refinement, and I feel (as many other Balliol men scattered all over England feel) that I owe more to him than to any other man in the world."

Jowett's biographers really ought to have quoted this portraiture of Bowen's, since it is the only good description of Jowett at the time when the beautiful crayon portrait (inserted as the frontispiece in this biography) was drawn by Richmond.

When Jowett spoke of Stanley as an *enfant gâté du monde*, he might well have been thinking of his own very different experiences. He wrote in 1856 to Sir Alexander

*Mr. Abbott's quotation from this speech (vol. ii., p. 104, of Jowett's Life) is apparently from a bald summary. The actual words of the best part of it are printed in Sir Henry Cunningham's privately printed sketch of Lord Bowen.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Grant: "There are three kinds of goods, as our friend Aristotle would say, rank, wealth, and talent. It seems to me that a man may do well with two out of the three. With the last only, life is a painful struggle." Of the loneliness of his boyhood and the pinch of his earliest undergraduate years at Balliol, he scarcely ever spoke. Indeed, we should hardly know of all this from Jowett himself, were it not for the laudable iteration of his thanks to Dr. Greenhill. There is, however, a general reference to these and other hard experiences of his in a letter to Professor Campbell. "I have had experience," he writes in 1885, "of uncomfortable and of comfortable surroundings. When I was uncomfortable, I was perhaps more useful. So it seems to me now." The chief reference here is perhaps to the long period during which the "Oxford Malignants," as Arnold, in an earlier controversy, somewhat hotly named them, deprived Jowett of the salary of his Greek professorship, although they and theirs did not scruple to benefit by his acceptable performance of his professorial duties. Now that the heats of those theological dog-days have passed, there is something exquisitely ludicrous in such a method of defending the Ark of the Lord by indirection, but we must not forget that, in the phrase of Lord Lingen, "the Master, like Socrates, asked provoking questions, easier to resent than to answer." However, not this refusal of orthodox supplies, but the election of Scott as Master of Balliol, seems to have been the severest trial of Jowett's life; certainly it was the one concerning which he showed the greatest susceptibility. Even this trial he lived to be almost thankful for, since he could write in his later days, "I should not have been fit for the Mastership then, I did not know enough of the world."

There is indeed a fascination in watching the growth of his gradually perfected knowledge of the world, and a measure of Jowett's perfectibility in this regard is given in what we may call his earlier and his later manner of changing the subject when conversation among men threatened to take too loose a turn. On the earlier occasion Jowett said to his host, "I do not consider myself better than you, but I am bound to protest against that remark"; in the later emergency the Master rose and said smilingly, "Shall we continue this conversation with the ladies?" Jowett was keenly conscious that the clever man devoid of manners often remains "an eccentric boor whose want of tact unfits him for most situations in life." Of those whose early surroundings and circumstances are inferior, he somewhere says: "A few of these golden natures are worth raising to a place in the aristocracy (I wish I could depress others). If they are really to succeed, they need absolute disinterestedness and a love of knowledge for its own sake." He goes on to say: "The subject of rising in life is a curious one; the ladder of competition reaching from the gutter to the skies is by no means a complete account of it, because it leaves out the most important element, personal fitness. In the Middle Ages there was more possibility of it by way of the Church, and perhaps of military distinction." This was written in 1890, but it throws light on what he meant in 1840 when he asked, "If it were true that there is no sense in which the aristocracy are better than shopkeepers, is it conceivable that in these days they could keep up a merely feudal distinction?" And then, as if to prepare his correspondent, R. R. W. Lingen, for the peerage to which he was raised for services as the head of the Education Office, he goes on to declare that he does not think "we can afford to give up the aristocracy as an element of National Education."

That part of Prof. Campbell's chapter on Jowett's family devoted to the great-grandfather and great-uncles, along with earlier generations of Jowetts, can hardly vie in interest with the rest of the biography. These Jowetts and their sons appear to have been vigorous and intelligent North-Country men. Those who did not go into business went into the Church, and distinguished themselves at Cambridge and at large by a leaning towards militant Evangelicalism. Jowett's connection through his mother with Langhorne, the translator of Plutarch, is a point of interest. Also the account given of Jowett's parents and of the circumstances of his boyhood is very interesting. Of his father, Jowett spoke as "one of the most innocent of men," and certainly Benjamin Jowett, Senior, impressed his friends with his gifts of mind and character, though he lacked the qualities necessary even for a moderate success in life. The hardships thus imposed upon his wife and all his children must have contributed to his illustrious son's appreciation of men who could succeed, though this bias in him has been quite as much exaggerated as Stanley's supposed tendency to play the courtier. Jowett repeatedly mentions his brothers with the deepest affection, and his touching words after his mother's death conspire with what he says of his father and sisters to show how deeply real were his family affections. "I have her face following me as she looked when she was alive," he says of his mother. "It was the pleasantest face when she was laid to rest, and the youngest that I ever saw." This may remind us of the strong look of resemblance to Richmond's early portrait which came over Jowett's face in the repose of death, for he appears in early years to have had something of his mother's "alabaster complexion suffused with shell pink." Of his sister, Jowett says, "She was a saint in private life, who never thought of herself. All her days were devoted to my father and mother, and she made life possible and easy for them. For, though intelligent and educated people, they were unable to take care of themselves." In spite of his deep attachment to his family, perhaps even on account of it, Jowett rarely talked of them. Many who knew him intimately used in jest to call him Melchisedec, "without father, without mother, without descent."

Of Jowett as one of the greatest masters of English prose nothing need here be said in addition to the expression of Pater's unqualified admiration in his letter (i., p. 329), written less than three months before his lamented death, describing Jowett's fame among the youth of Oxford, and the impression produced when he taught the University for nothing. "Such fame," writes Pater, "rested on his great originality as a writer and thinker. He seemed to have taken the measure not merely of all opinions, but of all possible ones, and *to have put the last refinements on literary expression*. The charm of that was enhanced by a certain mystery about his own philosophical and other opinions." Mr. Abbott gives (ii., p. 204) some of Jowett's counsels of perfection in the writing of English which are worth their weight in gold. Jowett's Plato undoubtedly exhibits his style at its best, and with the original conception of this work is connected one of the greatest intellectual benefits conferred by Jowett upon Oxford. We mean the prominent place first assigned by him in the "Humanities" course to the 'Republic' of Plato—a place which it still occupies unchallenged.

The leading intellectual and practical interests of the Master's life were so varied as to defy any process of cataloguing, and make it reasonable to say that the present biography must possess an almost unique interest for the future historian of English national life and thought from the decline at Oxford of the Tractarian movement to the closing decade of our century. It is wonderful to see how ably Jowett used the great position made for him by his attitude of masterful inactivity in the face of the assaults of Arnold's "Malignants." His only personal triumphs were the increased usefulness of Balliol College, the enlargement of Oxford life, the improvement of English education and administration. The reforms at Oxford set on foot by Dean Stanley's Commission, the intellectual and moral enhancement of the civil service, both in India and in England, were as engrossing to his mind as was the building up of Balliol; in fact, he so conceived and harmonized these noble aims that, in the achievement of each, he accomplished them all. The reforms of his Oxford vice-chancellorship alone entitle him to rank very high among the great administrators of these days, and he has earned the fame of the second founder of the modern Balliol College. Oxford has a permanent memorial of his genius for practical affairs not only in the preservation of two large open spaces, the building over of which threatened her immemorial loveliness, and in the solid establishment of her Medical School; the "Vice-Chancellor's Cut," whereby the health and sweetness of her airs have been safeguarded, and the welcome at her doors flung open with his help to all, is also a memorial of his life. His permanent institution at Balliol of Sunday evening concerts may serve to remind us of those concerts, given at the beginning of the century at Trinity Hall, Cambridge, by his great uncle, the Reverend Professor Joseph Jowett, but we quail at the thought of what that Cambridge Evangelical would have said could he have dreamed that a nephew of his would be guilty of active connivance in the establishment of a permanent theatre at the seat of a great English University.

Flowers of Field, Hill, and Swamp. By Caroline A. Creevey. Illustrated by Benjamin Lander. Harper & Bros. 1897.

We have here a book written by a true lover of plants, which we fear may be seriously disappointing to all who use it. It is an honest attempt to arrange some of our wild plants, and many of those which have escaped from cultivation, into groups depending on the places where they are found in their best estate. The plants of swamps, bogs, and marshes find their place together in this volume; then follow those which are near the seaside or on the very coast; after which come, in turn, the aquatics, the plants of wet meadows and low grounds, of dry

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

fields, waste places, waysides, and so on. Of course, such grouping brings about some curious collocations, and, of necessity, cannot be exact, but it has its basis in nature, and is the partial expression of the underlying laws which govern the distribution of plants. Any description of such grouping is, in short, a step in the direction of exhibiting some of the adaptations of plants to their surroundings. To this study has of late been given the name of œcology—a term not yet in all the dictionaries, but likely to be there soon.

The author has a keen eye and a facile touch with her pen, which should be confined, we think, to the work in which she has made a pleasing success, namely, the description, in a chatty manner, of plants and their ways. Her special descriptions, where she aims at being scientific, are not satisfactory; the distinctions between species are far from clear, and the management of genera wholly unjustifiable. Moreover, the nomenclature is very confusing: some of the new generic and specific names take their places with the confident air of usurpers, while some of the old names are left undisturbed. It is a revolution on the instalment plan. It seems to us rather better, while botanical names are in a chaotic condition, and during the period of clearing, to keep from stirring the lees. We shall not trouble our readers with some of the amusing inconsistencies, for they will perhaps mean little even to the readers of the book, and we therefore pass by with mere mention the flagrant instances of a want of method in the treatment of *Microstylis*, *Vaccinium*, and *Oenothera*. These genera may fairly ask why they have been omitted in the general overturn. Has new light begun to dawn?

But, leaving these matters of description and names aside, we come to the last serious objection to the book, and then we pass to the more pleasant task of speaking of its merits. There is absolutely no thread of connection leading through the labyrinth, no clue is placed in the reader's hand. Whether students will wander aimlessly through the descriptions without any friendly guide to the orders and genera, we do not know; we do know that it will require more than ordinary patience for the general reader to determine positively the identity of the plants referred to. Hence we fear that the book will be disappointing to some who employ it.

But the book has many merits. In the first place, the popular descriptions are in many instances more than usually charming, and some of the expressions which the author employs are very telling. Again, most of the drawings are above the average found in our popular works, both in spirit and in truthfulness, although a good many of them are not distinctive of the species. One may not, from the delineation, know exactly "where he is at," but he may be sure that he is thereabouts; and therefore we think that in the warm days of early summer, one who has never studied plants, but who wishes to catch a glimpse of their relations to their surroundings, might do far worse than to puzzle over this pretty treatise, seeking the names and asking questions as to habits of the plants, in the different localities wet and dry. Then, with the occasional disappointments which will be sure to come, there will be many compensations: the reader will be introduced into one of the most pleasant fields of botany.

Few subjects are more highly attractive than personal details as to private life. Those biographies are most attractive in which the details of private life, within the limits of good taste, are presented. In the case of plants these limits are not likely to be overstepped; one can with perfect propriety ask the most searching questions as to all phases and particulars of the life of the flowers of desert and jungle. Such books as this are sure to increase deep interest in such matters, and therefore we wish that more emphasis had been laid upon the habits and caprices of the plants under consideration. For such work the author is admirably fitted, and we trust that, keeping away from disputed and uncertain ground, she may add to the list of works on what one may call Recreative Botany. At any rate, in her next book she will not be likely to undertake to dispose, as she has here done, of such genera as *Vitis*, *Lespedeza*, *Aster*, *Solidago*, *Polygonum*, and so on, in an off-hand manner. We look for many better books from her pen and Mr. Lander's skilful pencil.

Activity in the investigation of the habits and the relations of plants to all their surroundings is at present very great, and the subject is attracting many observers. Questions as to the peculiarities of strand-plants, desert vegetation, and plants of the tropical forests are innumerable, and their true answers are beginning to throw additional light on some dark places in biology. Every honest attempt to stimulate such inquiry is to be welcomed, even if its faults are many. In an ideal guide to this subject, attention would also be drawn to the fact that there are swamps north and swamps south, dry hills in New England and dry hills in North Carolina, and that the climatal conditions are so diverse between the North and South that the reactions of vegetable forms are likewise different. We may fairly expect that, in a subsequent work on rather different lines, the author will give more prominence to such matters.

Borderland Studies. By George M. Gould, A.M., M.D. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. 1896.

As we read the author of this collection of "miscellaneous addresses and essays pertaining to medicine and the medical profession, and their relation to general science and thought," he believes that all life, whether of amœbæ or of man, is part of a general stock, if one may so say—is a portion of a universal presence upon which limited knowledge and power are bestowed; and that this life is "everywhere present, vividly alert to grasp the opportunity" of vivifying matter. This is a pantheistic harking back to Pythagoras, or the more ancient Egyptians; or in one view it is another expression of the Logos of John. The underlying idea is that Life is God and God is Life; it is not a reference of life to God, but their identity. Whence Dr. Gould deduces that "the truest religion seeks freedom from self and union with the everlasting life; one must lose his life to find it." Incarnation so hampers life that individuality is the result, and individuality is imperfection. The desire for a personal immortality, for an everlasting perpetuation of self, even if glorified, is reprehensible, and a sign of selfish weakness, which is an antipodal doctrine to that of the church of Christ. In this world, "if we aid life we are good; if we side with matter we sin." It is not clear wherein, as we now stand, we can side with life without siding with the matter through which, and only through which, we know life. With the best thought we can give to the two essays, on "Immortality" and on "Life and its Physical Basis," in which these views are developed, they do not appear to us to warrant the conclusions that the author has reached.

Possibly because of his learning apart from his philosophy, Dr. Gould is a spelling reformer in medical and presumably in secular literature, maintaining that language was made for man, not man for language. He does not advise pure phonetic spelling, but he offers eight or nine modifications for current use, including the abolition of the diæresis, because "it cannot teach pronunciation." That is precisely what it should teach, as it marks the difference between cocaine and cocaïne, between cooper and coöperate, and similar recurrent vowelled words. There is a slap-dash style in this paper, tolerable in extemporaneous debate, but quite out of keeping with the real importance of the subject.

The initial essay in this somewhat heterogeneous collection, perhaps given the place of honor from its relation to the rising sentiment of protection to the lower animals and to the general growth of pity, is on "Vivisection." It is an impartial and candid statement of the right and the wrong of the accusations, the defence, and the practice. With the author's appreciation of the practical identity if not the sacredness of all life, is joined the recognition of man's rise from savagery into domesticity and his material progress as dependent upon the domestication of the wild animals, and a full acceptance of the Brahminical warning *Tat twam asi* ('This [animal] art thou'), as meaning that in every form of life there is kinship. He claims the anti-vivisectionists as believers in his own creed of cosmic commensalism. The animal, however, has no inherent right to life superior to the needs of man—wherein pleasure is not to be confused with need. Else wolves might destroy the flocks and the little foxes spoil the vines unhindered. If, by common consent, animal flesh and skin and oil may contribute to man's good, it logically follows that the animal organism as such may illustrate his physical machinery and advance veterinary medicine, and it is absurd to admit the one and deny the other. The graver issue, often obscured, is the infliction of pain. In much popular outcry, animals painlessly killed for demonstration are said to be vivisected, although the intelligent champions of animal life cannot confuse dissection with vivisection. There are thus two points involved—the taking of life and the application of torture. As long as men are meat-eaters, killing *per se* deserves no special reprobation because done in the interest of science. If the death is painless, nothing is to be said at this stage of our development. Painful experiment, except for a well-defined, laudable object, should be barred, and, when authorized, be made only by qualified investigators. That entirely extraneous subject which unbalanced enthusiasts have advocated, vivisection, or, for the matter of that, dissection, for purposes of demonstration before school-children, is justly denounced.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

We cannot go over the whole tale of these essays. Occasionally the freedom of the platform or of oral argument clings too closely to the printed lines to be acceptable, but we may well pardon an occasional lapse in diction for the stimulus of original thought beyond conventional lines.

John Hopkins Morison: A Memoir. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

As a Unitarian minister, Dr. Morison was little known beyond the bounds of his own sect. Within those bounds he was highly respected for his abilities and revered for his personal and social worth. Every communion has its saints, and Dr. Morison's type was preëminently the saintly. But the saints have sometimes a strain of iron in their blood, and Dr. Morison had this. His work was done under a burden of physical disabilities which most men would have regarded as a discharge from any active service whatsoever. It retarded him a good deal in his early manhood, so that, born in 1808 and graduated at Harvard in 1831, he was not settled in the ministry until 1836, when he, together with Ephraim Peabody, succeeded Dr. Dewey as minister of the society in New Bedford. In 1846, after two years spent in the endeavor to regain his health, he took charge of the society in Milton, Mass., and his pastorate continued until 1885, with one colleague and another after 1871. In connection with his pastorate he did much editorial work upon the *Christian Register* and *Unitarian Review*, besides lecturing at the Harvard and Meadville Divinity Schools. When, in 1867, a divinity school was organized in Boston with the idea of rushing young men into the ministry with a minimum of general preparation, Dr. Morison accepted a professorship. His own culture was so exact and fine that his connection with such a movement is not easily accounted for. Very likely it was encouraged by his sympathy with young men in straitened circumstances who were desiring a professional education. Yet he had himself got the best preparatory and collegiate training at Exeter and Harvard after his father's death, with the domestic fortunes gone to wreck. Indeed, it looks as if his straitened circumstances gave to his life that impulse and direction towards a liberal education which otherwise might have been wanting. Those who knew Dr. Soule as the principal of Exeter some twenty years ago will be interested in finding him there as a teacher seventy years ago. And many of his pupils will read with astonishment Dr. Morison's estimate of his character as a teacher (pp. 237, 238), having found him utterly mechanical in his methods, and in his personal presence weak, though with a superficial dignity more provocative of amusement than of awe.

One of the most attractive things in this biography is Dr. Morison's fondness for Peterborough, N. H., the town in which he was born and grew up. His connection with it was never broken. To him it turned for help on all great local occasions, and his last public utterance was at the dedication of a new building for its library, when he made the dedicatory address. It is claimed for the library that it was the first of its kind in the country or in the world. In his later years Dr. Morison made his summer home in Peterborough, with his relatives and children close at hand. So stable in his affections, it was not strange that he was loved so much. His Unitarian thinking, given here, already sounds far-off and strange. His anti-slavery temper was, like that of many of his coreligionists, sincere and solemn, but inactive and opposed to any denominational expression of sympathy with anti-slavery measures.

The Pharsalia of Lucan. Translated into blank verse by Edward Ridley, Q.C. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

Of the brilliant little group of Spanish provincials whose literary ambition brought them to Rome in the first Christian century, there is no figure half so interesting as that of Lucan; in all that shameful period there is no career so tragic. The story of Lucan is well known. It is the story of a young man of great gifts, who so mistook his own powers and the poetical possibilities of his artificial age that he wrote an epic. Now a second-rate epic is one of the few outrages on literature which the world does not forgive. We all remember Juvenal's list of Nero's crimes with its ascending scale: He caused his wife's death, murdered his mother, and wrote an epic—*Troïca scripsit.* Lucan's youth—he died at twenty-six—is the best defence of his indiscretion. Had he lived, there is little doubt that he would have turned his maturer energies to the didactic poetry that "set his genius," and rivalled Juvenal and Martial in the field of satire and epigram. Here he would have been less hampered by that rhetorical training which went far towards wrecking the 'Pharsalia.' Lucan's grandfather was the elder Seneca, the professor of rhetoric; Seneca the philosophical rhetorician was his uncle; the rhetorical manner was in his blood, and none of the Seneca family ever had the art of wearing his rhetoric "lightly, like a flower."

Lucan's rank as a poet is still a problem of literary taste. The scholar of the old school assimilated his Lucan along with his Homer and Virgil; Pitt and Burke quoted him in the House of Commons, Lamartine, in the French Assembly; Macaulay, himself a rhetorician, thought Lucan "one of the most extraordinary men that ever lived"; his influence on Shelley, who bracketed him with Sidney and Chatterton in the 'Adonais,' is well known. But Shelley's opinion that he "transcends Virgil" is an aberration that can be compared only with Milton's singular preference for Ovid. Put Lucan to the test applied to Ovid by Macaulay—hunt him through for fifty consecutive lines that Virgil might have written, and you will hunt in vain. But when you have been bored through a few hundred lines by Lucan the declaimer pointing the moral for you and explaining the characters, Lucan the poet will suddenly take your breath with a dozen lines of such passion and elevation that you are ready, with Dante, to give him a place beside Homer and Horace.

A poet of long dead-levels and short, sudden flights is the despair of the translator. A successful version of the 'Pharsalia' has not hitherto appeared. Marlowe's rendering of Book I. is unequal and disappointing; Mr. Goldwin Smith attempted some selected passages in his 'Bay Leaves'; in Froude's 'Cæsar' there is a blank-verse rendering of some famous lines. But a sustained and energetic translation of the whole poem is a very different achievement, and Mr. Ridley has given us the first readable and faithful version of a writer whom Dante echoed, and who has, at all times, been a peculiar favorite with poets and literary men. Mr. Ridley wisely chose for his medium blank verse—one of the three metres which Matthew Arnold thought capable of the "grand manner." It is to the scholar's tribunal that the translator of a classic must appeal, and the scholar will naturally turn to certain test passages, and to those epigrammatic single lines for which Lucan is famous. His powers of declamation were employed to the best advantage on the horrors of that war, "worse than civil,"

> "—when rugged Charon fainted,
> And asked a navy rather than a boat
> To ferry over the sad world that came."

A fair specimen of the translator's manner is the description of the carnival of birds and beasts on the field of Pharsalia (vii. 967 seqq.).

> "Then to the ghastly harvest of the war
> Came all the beasts of earth whose facile sense
> Of odor tracks the bodies of the slain.
> . . . . . .
> The air grew dark with vultures' bovering wings
> Innumerable, for every grove and wood
> Sent forth its denizens; on every tree
> Dripped from their crimson beaks a gory dew.
> Oft on the conquerors and their impious arms
> Or purple rain of blood, or mouldering flesh,
> Fell from the lofty heaven; or limbs of men
> From weary talons dropped."

Throughout the poem Mr. Ridley notes some fine English parallels and echoes, chiefly from Ben Jonson. With the passage quoted above he might have compared the imitation in Shelley's "Hellas," which is obvious enough, though it has escaped the commentators:

> "The exhalations and the thirsty winds
> Are sick with blood; the dew is foul with death;
> Heaven's light is quenched in slaughter; thus where'er
> Upon your camps, cities, or towers, or fleets,
> *The obscene birds the reeking remnants cast*
> *Of these dead limbs.*
> . . . . . Famine and pestilence,
> And panic shall wage war upon our side."

The famous dream of Pompeius is the only other passage we have space to quote:

> "Pompeius on that morn
> In troubled sleep an empty dream conceived;
> For in the watches of the night he heard
> Innumerable Romans shout his name
> Within his theatre; the benches vied
> To raise his fame, and place him with the gods;
> As once in youth when victory was won,
> . . . . . .
> He sat triumphant in his pure white gown,
> A Roman knight, and heard the Senate's cheer.
> . . . . . Break not his latest sleep
> Ye sentinels, let not the trumpet-call
> Strike on his ear; for on the morrow's night
> Shapes of the battle lost, of death and war,
> Shall crowd his rest with terrors."

There is nothing in Virgil finer than the pathetic contrast in these lines, nothing more striking in the 'Pharsalia' itself, unless it be the description of the tomb of Pompeius, at the end of the eighth book, where Mr Ridley has again done full justice to the "grand style pathetic."

The book is admirably printed and got up. The translator has had the advantage of Francken's new (1896) edition of the first five books, and he has, here and there, adopted that editor's readings. The only proof-reader's error that we have noted is in the spelling of the name of Dante's translator, which should be Cary, not Carey (pp. xiii and 289).

A Girl's Wanderings in Hungary. By Ellen H. Browning. Longmans.

In spite of the exhibition at Budapest last summer, Hungary is still a country unfamiliar to the more western world, to which its name usually suggests reminiscences

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

about Kossuth and the Revolution of '49, and a few vague ideas about the present Dual Monarchy. Most people know but little of the life of the Hungarians to-day, their characteristics and aspirations, and there are not many good books in English or French that give much information on the subject. We therefore recommend 'A Girl's Wanderings in Hungary' with all its drawbacks.

The author describes herself sufficiently at the outset: "I have always been of an independent turn of mind, and I never could see why a well-brought-up girl should not be allowed exactly the same liberty of action that is accorded to her brother, in fact to every young man in every grade of life"; and "I am so Gothlike by nature as to detest museums—except as places to sit and rest in on a hot day." This teaches us what not to expect. Sure enough, the book shows scant evidence of real thought, though it contains plenty of commonplace reflections; it is not a study of any kind, but merely the record of the experiences and impressions of an unconventional young person possessed of some insight and a keen sense of humor, who travelled considerably, saw interesting things, and frequently knows how to describe them. She mixed with nobles, middle class, and peasants, in the city and in the country; she went about a good deal alone, and, talking freely herself, she seems to have got others to do the same. Her vivid pictures of Hungarian life give her work a value for instruction as well as pleasure. Unluckily, it is marred by unpleasant faults. The continual egotism of the writer is annoying until one gets used to it; her style is often slovenly. She is guilty several times of bad taste, and, when she digresses and moralizes, one frequently finds it hard not to shut up the volume. The following extract will show what we mean:

"[Near the Petöfi statue in Pesth] every Sunday going into church I hated the Austrians with a bitter hatred; coming out of church I again shook my fist at them, metaphorically. You ask why? Well, just now I told you that a looker-on was not obliged to take sides, yet I am always obliged by some stupid, unaccountable instinct to take sides with the oppressed and hate the oppressors; in spite of which I am a stanch Conservative. You may believe it or not, as you like, but I detest Radicals, though my fondness for the peasantry of many nations is very pronounced; but the People (spelt with a big P) find neither support nor sympathy with me. 'Vox populi, vox Dei' is all nonsense in my opinion, besides being distinctly blasphemous. Good gracious! Only think of it! What an obnoxious, unreasonable, selfish, fickle voice some folk would try to make out the Almighty's to be!"

And yet, notwithstanding such stuff as the above, the book, as we have said, is really worth reading.

The State and the Individual. By William Sharp McKechnie. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1896.

This is a well-meant book. The determination of the proper limits of governmental action is something that the time requires, and that deserves the most thorough investigation. The theories of those who are called socialists and of those who are called individualists may be advantageously compared and contrasted, and there is room for a statement of the theories of those who class themselves with neither school. As Mr. McKechnie observes, the copious literature on the subject of the legitimate province of law and government is polemical rather than constructive, and most treatises are either limited to the economic features of the inquiry, or are manifestations of uncritical and partisan zeal.

But, while a really critical examination of this subject would be welcome, we are compelled to say that this author lacks the necessary equipment. His position is essentially dogmatical; not in the colloquial sense of mere positive assertion, but in the sense of assuming what requires proof. He has been captivated by the Hegelian lingo, and thinks that by using the word "organic" in a mysterious and solemn way, all difficulties can be made to vanish. He shrinks a little when he contemplates Bluntschli's boldness in asserting that the State has sexual functions of the masculine type—according to that sturdy philosopher the State is a "He," and the Church a "She"—but he cannot deny that Bluntschli may be right. For "the body corporate is mysterious," and an organic whole is not merely the sum of its parts. The basis of the State is Will—the universal Will, or practical reason—and it is because this universal Will acts on righteous moral principles that law has a binding force. The end of this organism is perfection. It is "the highest welfare of the individual and of humanity. It is, in other words, to carry forward towards fulfilment the eternal purpose of the universe."

To the objection that this definition is for practical purposes a little vague, Mr. McKechnie cheerfully replies that its vagueness is its greatest merit—an opinion which we share. If it were not vague, he says, men would not agree about it. It is conceivable, he observes—and we concur—that the true end of the State is disclosed only through the process of evolution. Hence, it would be awkward to be required to tell precisely what the end is. Evolution might prove us wrong, and it is, therefore, immensely convenient to fall back on a formula like "self-realization" as expressing the goal of all social and political aims. In fact, the most impudent "individualist" would falter at repudiating such a formula as this. If political philosophy could stop with this definition, all controversy might cease; but such a definition as this is not even a beginning of wisdom.

Even in a metaphysical age, such metaphysics would have been bad; in a practical age they are intolerable. We may attribute "existence" to a State, just as we attribute it to a school, or a regiment, or a party, or a baseball team; but to assume that whenever an organization of this kind is effected, an activity of a higher order than man comes into being, and possesses a moral nature, is really superstition of a very low and primitive kind. It might befit an age of ancestor-worship and a community that reverenced fetishes; but its survival in a critical age like the present is an anachronism. The absurdities into which any one who adopts such theories is led are manifold. What is the criterion of morality among states, and who are the judges? Mr. McKechnie does not go so far as some, and maintain that no state is a state unless he thinks it realizes, or aims to realize, the common good; but he refuses to call any state righteous unless he approves of its aims. He enumerates a list of things which a "moral" state must not do, "under the penalty of being considered by more equitably minded states and individuals a thief and a breaker of faith." But he is obliged to admit that even an immoral state has absolute power over its subjects, so that they must commit what their consciences pronounce immoral acts when the State commands it.

As is usual in such cases, Mr. McKechnie reinforces the metaphysics of Hegel with the phrases of Rousseau. The will of the State is not the sum of the wills of a majority of its subjects, nor the instrument of a majority of their votes. "The Czar of all the Russias rules by the will of the people as much as does the executive of the Swiss Federation." We must never identify this will of the people "with the blind passions of the mob, or the mere mechanical majority of unenlightened voters." But how if this mechanical majority declares that it is enlightened, that it expresses the national will, and that Mr. McKechnie must either admit this or be cut off as a traitor? What is the common ground on which such differences of opinion can be adjusted? Mr. McKechnie imagines all the time that he is the benevolent despot, that he and those who agree with him are to direct the policy of the government. Hence he says: "No member of the body politic can be allowed to arrogate to himself the right of private judgment as to the duties of the State." Let him conceive himself as living under a government every principle of whose action was revolting to him, and see how he likes the application of this slavish maxim.

It is true that some subtleties are advanced with a view of defending this theory from the reproach of justifying the most abject and pusillanimous submission to tyranny. When a majority "applies its right of compulsion in a mechanical rather than in an organic way," if we understand him, Mr. McKechnie would say that the majority was not the State. So long as every one that is aggrieved may say that he is the victim of mechanical compulsion, and may rightfully resist it, we suppose that liberty may have sufficient protection; but such theories appear to us to throw political philosophy into the wildest confusion. To rescue it by means of silly platitudes, such as, "There is no tyranny unless the power of the legislature is used wickedly and unwisely," is ridiculous. Every one will agree that no right should be interfered wth unless more important rights require it, but a political system made up of such propositions is not what the present day demands.

The Flight of the King after the Battle of Worcester. By Allan Fea. With numerous sketches, photographs, and portraits. New York: John Lane. 1897.

It is to be presumed that the cult of the "royal martyr," which has recently shown signs of vitality, does not extend to his son. Indeed, one finds difficulty in realizing that Charles II. ever passed through a phase of respectability. Little profit would arise from a study of his progress down the primrose path, but this much may be said, that he began well, and that the good points of his character are fully brought out by his conduct in the Worcester campaign and in the subsequent flight. Were the disgraces of his reign less glaring, we might feel drawn towards him in adversity. Qualities of character, however, have a small part in Mr. Fea's contribution to the story of his wanderings. Archæology and pictures take their place. The book is an example of that beautiful typography and illustration which

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

makes the poor man covetous and the collector insolent, without adding vastly to the world's stock of ideas or information. In the first part the fugitive's itinerary is traced step by step from the field of disaster to Shoreham, where he took boat for France; in the second, a *Nachtrag* of rare Boscobelian tracts is mustered. Sixteen portraits, principally those of the persons who aided Charles to escape, are reproduced in photogravure, and plates taken from drawings or photographs are profusely scattered about. Mr. Fea leads one a picturesque journey through the west and south of England, opening the doors of many pleasant country houses, and incidentally proving how far personal allegiance went in England as lately as the seventeenth century.

The most entertaining narrative of Charles's adventures after the battle of Worcester is beyond question that of Lord Clarendon. Strange to say, he wrote without familiarity with the numerous tracts of the Restoration period which are intimately concerned with the subject. Blount published 'Boscobel' before the 'History of the Rebellion' went into the printer's hands, but Clarendon's glaring errors of fact prove that he either passed by this important source altogether, or placed slight reliance on it. He was in his grave long before the Pepys manuscript had emerged from the library of Magdalene College, Cambridge. So far as truth is concerned, his story of the first week is pure, though animated, travesty. Later on, when he comes to the Lanes, he is more faithful. Yet, Clarendon's vagaries notwithstanding, we advise the reader to have his thirteenth book fresh in memory before consulting Mr. Fea. The latter, while minute and painstaking, lacks animation. His text is a series of notes on successive episodes, rather than a brisk and independent history.

Mr. Fea urges that the matter which he treats "should be popular, not, perhaps, for the sake of the hero of the adventures, but because it presents a picture—unequalled in the annals of the country—of the devotion of the subject to his sovereign." This is another way of saying that the Young Pretender and Flora Macdonald belong to Scotland and not to England. Without denying the extent of the devotion itself, we are impressed by the Boscobel tracts with a sense that Roman Catholic allegiance and party spirit are to receive credit for Charles's escape. We doubt very much whether the Penderels, Father Huddlestone, and many others whom we might mention would have given their services to a royal fugitive of the Protestant persuasion, whatever might have been their abstract views on the subject of divine right. We fancy, also, that Cromwell was relieved when Charles escaped him, just as Maurice of Saxony was relieved when Charles V. fled from Innsbruck into the Alps of Styria. A second regicide would have been far too invidious.

The five tracts which Mr. Fea prints are not new, though excluded from Hughes's edition of 'Boscobel.' Quite the most striking of them is "Colonel Gounter's Narrative." It begins at Heale, near Salisbury, after the romantic and well-known part of the journey was over, and takes the King into safety. The five together furnish a useful supplement to the Hughes collection. One is somewhat disgusted at Mr. Fea's evidence of pension-begging after the Restoration, but pleased to see that just claims were honored. Fourteen persons were in receipt of considerable annuities at the accession of James II. The arrearages on these claims in 1685 amounted to nearly £9,000. Mr. Fea's investigation extends even to the family pedigrees of Charles's chief abettors and the subsequent fate of the houses where he was lodged. His volume is a careful piece of topographical and antiquarian research, rendered engaging by extreme fulness and beauty of illustration.

Soldiering and Surveying in British East Africa. 1891-1894. By Major J. R. L. Macdonald, R.E. With maps and illustrations. Edward Arnold. 1897. Pp. xvi, 333, 8vo.

Uganda is the most promising of the native African states. Its important geographical position on the Nile and Lake Victoria makes it the meeting-point of the great lines of communication which will doubtless in the near future join Egypt with the Cape, and the Indian Ocean with the Congo. Its people are unusually intelligent and progressive. Unaided either by Asiatics or by Europeans, they organized a government with a king, a prime minister, and a great council of provincial chiefs. They only among negroes, if we are not mistaken, have made good roads. Like the Japanese, they are eagerly adopting civilized ways. A silver currency, for instance, is taking the place of cowries. A postal service has been established. The printing-press is a power, and Christianity and Mohammedanism have nearly supplanted paganism. The great hindrance to the full development of the advantages of their position and of the resources of their exceptionally rich soil is their isolation from the markets of the world. The three months' journey to the coast is prohibitive of every export but ivory and slaves. It is probable, however, that the building of a railway would have been indefinitely postponed but for the establishment of the English protectorate over the country. This necessitated rapid communication with the coast, and as soon as the question of occupancy was raised, a survey of a route from the sea to Lake Victoria was ordered.

A narrative of this surveying expedition is given in the first part of this volume by the commander, Major Macdonald. It does not call for special comment, as the party traversed a comparatively well-known country, and the incidents of the march did not differ from those of other East African expeditions. There were the usual difficulties with the porters, sufferings from thirst, alarms from hostile Masai, and hunting adventures, including attacks by rhinoceroses. On the return journey Major Macdonald took a prominent part in some military operations against the Wakikuyu, a "turbulent" people and inveterate raiders of caravans. To a detailed description of these he joins a lively account of the difficulties experienced in founding and maintaining a station among hostile savages.

The larger and by far the more important part of the work is devoted to what is practically the military history of Uganda during the years 1889-93. The war between the Roman Catholic and Protestant factions had just ended, in the spring of 1892, with the complete success of the latter, when the survey expedition had about completed its work; and Major Macdonald was ordered to report upon the causes of hostilities. This obliged him to return to Uganda, where, after making his report, he served for a time as Acting Commissioner. In this capacity he succeeded in quelling a formidable rebellion of the Mohammedans, their third attempt within four years to drive out the Christians and foreigners. The history of the two previous wars is told at some length, as well as that of the events which preceded the final struggle. The danger of the immediate situation was greatly increased by the fact that Selim Bey, one of Emin Pasha's mutinous officers, and his Sudanese followers, some five or six thousand in number, openly showed their sympathy with the rebels. The prompt and vigorous measures which Major Macdonald took to disarm the Sudanese garrisons at the capital and Port Alice, the arrest of Selim Bey, and the defeat of the Mohammedan army, are well described, and redound greatly to the credit of the English and native Protestant chiefs. During the last part of 1893 Major Macdonald was chief of staff to Col. Colvile in his expedition against Kabarega, King of Unyoro, which resulted in the submission of this country to British rule.

The arrangement of the various chapters is somewhat confusing, and it is difficult at times to discover the proper chronological sequence of the different wars and expeditions on land and water related. The author lacks also the power of graphic description. The nearest approach to a pen-portrait, for instance, is the following account of Mwanga's Prime Minister:

"In a lower room of his two-storied house he held his court. A carpet was spread before his table, which was neatly furnished with paper, ink, pens, blotting-pad, and all the necessary adjuncts for his work. Along one side of the room squatted a number of youthful clerks, who were busy copying his drafts or recording his decisions. Seated at his table, the Katikiro was a shrewd man of business, and he had much need to be so, for his court was crowded for long hours each day with suitors and officials; and not only had he to give judgment, but to manage the ordinary work of administration. Visits to the King or to the Commissioner, and conferences with his brother chiefs, took up part of his time, and, altogether, his position was no sinecure. Though so sternly business-like during the day, in the evenings he unbent, and was generally to be found sitting in his enclosure in a neatly built veranda, solacing himself after the cares of office by playing on the Uganda lyre."

Major Macdonald pays a high but just tribute to the work of the English missionaries:

"Instead of a savage heathen kingdom, where a man's life was rated at the price of an ox, and a woman was an article of barter, and where justice went to the highest bidder, the Uganda of to-day is a well-ordered State, steadily improving in the arts of civilization and culture, where no man can lose his property or his life at the arbitrary will of the great, or without a fair and open trial. This alone is no small thing to have achieved, and a large share in its accomplishment is undoubtedly due to the patient toil of the Christian missionaries, who have adhered steadfastly to their self-imposed task through the stormy times of war and through the dark days of persecution."

Some part of this great achievement is due to the English officials. One great merit of the present work, indeed, is that it bears such trustworthy because unconscious testimony to the high qualities demanded of the picked men who rule the natives. That they display these qualities in the hour of need, and, without thought of personal gain, do their duty loyally, is the great secret of England's success in extending her empire.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The volume is very attractive in appearance, being provided with numerous illustrations and sketch-maps of the various wars, together with a general map of British East Africa. In this, as in other works, it is necessary to call attention to a lack of agreement at times between the text and the maps in the orthography of place names. Bulingugwe is given several times Bulangugwe, Kibwezi Kibwizi, and Budongo Budong. On page 200 the date 1894 should be 1891.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bangs, J. K. The Pursuit of the House-Boat. Harpers. $1.25.
Baumbach, Rudolf. Die Nonna. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Becke, Louis. His Native Wife. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75c.
Benson, Rev. E. W. Cyprian, his Life, his Times, his Work. Appletons. $7.
Bertheroy, Jean. Le Double Jouy. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Bower, H. M. The Elevation and Procession of the Ceri at Gubbio. London: David Nutt.
Bowne, Prof. B. P. Theory of Thought and Knowledge. Harpers. $1.50.
Brinton, D. G. Maria Candelaria: An Historic Drama. Philadelphia: David McKay.
Bryan, W. H. The Eagleid: An Epic Poem. St. Louis: Nixon-Jones Co.
Claghorn, Kate H. College Training for Women. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Clark, V. S. Eutropi Historia Romana. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 30c.
Compton, Herbert. A Free Lance in a Far Land. Cassell. 50c.
Davey, Richard. The Sultan and His Subjects. 2 vols. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Davis, R. H. Soldiers of Fortune. Scribners. $1.50.
Edwards, J. N. Shelby and His Men; or, The War in the West. Kansas City: Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co.
Egerton, George. Symphonies. John Lane. $1.25.
Fiske, A. K. The Myths of Israel. Macmillan.
Fuertes, J. H. Water and Public Health. John Wiley & Sons. $1.50.
Guiney, Louise I. Patrins. Boston: Copeland & Day.
Hawke, W. H. The Premier Cypher Telegraphic Code. London: Effingham Wilson.
Hornung, E. W. My Lord Duke. Scribners. $1.25.
Hubrecht, Prof. A. A. W. The Descent of the Primates. Scribners. $1.
Kipling, Rudyard. Under the Deodars, and Other Stories. [Outward Bound Edition.] Scribners.
Kuhns, Prof. L. O. Treatment of Nature in Dante's Divina Commedia. Edward Arnold.
Ladd, Prof. G. T. Philosophy of Knowledge. Scribners. $4.
Leathes, Prof. Stanley. The Claims of the Old Testament. Scribners.
Leroy-Beaulieu, Pierre. Les Nouvelles Sociétés Anglo-Saxonnes. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Liddon, Rev. H. P. Explanatory Analysis of St. Paul's First Epistle to Timothy. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Mackenzie, W. D. The Ethics of Gambling. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus.
Maeterlinck, Maurice. The Treasure of the Humble. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
McClain, Emlin. A Treatise on the Criminal Law. 2 vols. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
McManus, Blanche. The Voyage of the Mayflower. New York: E. R. Herrick & Co. $1.25.
Means, James. The Aeronautical Annual. 1897. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co. $1.
Mitchel, F. A. Sweet Revenge: A Romance of the Civil War. Harpers. $1.
Mooney, James. The Ghost-Dance Religion. Washington: Government Printing-Office.
Mooney, W. D. A Brief Latin Grammar. American Book Co. 75c.
Nash, Prof. H. S. Genesis of the Social Conscience. Macmillan.
Nesmith, J. E. The Life and Work of Frederic Thomas Greenhalge, Governor of Massachusetts. Boston: Roberts Bros. $3.
Newhall, C. S. The Vines of Northeastern America. Putnams. $2.50.
Nixon, J. L. The Lowly Nazarene. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. $1.
On a Western Campus: Stories and Sketches of Undergraduate Life. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton.
Painter, Prof. F. V. N. Introduction to American Literature. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.25.
Parker, Rev. John. The Saviour in the Light of the First Century. Edinburgh: J. Gardner Hitt.
Peel, Sir Robert. A Bit of a Fool. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Pellissier, Georges. The Literary Movement in France during the Nineteenth Century. Putnams. $3.50.
Pottier, E. Vases Antiques du Louvre. Paris: Hachette.
Proceedings of the National Council of Jewish Women. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Redmond, Edmond. Lyra Cyclus; or, The Bards and the Bicycle. Rochester: The Author.
Reid, Rev. H. M. B. Books that Help the Religious Life. Edinburgh: J. Gardner Hitt.
Roberts, Isaac P. The Fertility of the Land. Macmillan. $1.25.
Romanes, G. J. Thoughts on Religion. 3d ed. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. 50c.
Ross, Clinton. Zuleka. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.
Ross, Clinton. The Meddling Hussy. Stone & Kimball. $1.50.
Sanford, M. B. The Romance of a Jesuit Mission. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.25.
Schaeffer, N. C. Bible Readings for Schools. American Book Co. 35c.
Seth, Prof. Andrew. Two Lectures on Theism. Scribners. $1.
Sheldon, H. L. Notes on the Nicaragua Canal. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Sherwood, Mrs. M. E. W. An Epistle to Posterity: Being Rambling Recollections of Many Years of My Life. Harpers. $2.
Sizeranne, Robert de la. Ruskin et la Religion de la Beauté. Paris: Hachette.
Solly, Dr. S. E. A Handbook of Medical Climatology. Philadelphia: Lea Bros. & Co. $4.
Stall, Rev. Sylvanus. What a Young Boy Ought to Know. Philadelphia: Vir Publishing Co. $1.
The Beautiful Miss Brooke. Appletons.
Ward, H. D. The Burglar Who Moved Paradise. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Whitfield, E. E. Précis Writing and Office Correspondence. London: Methuen & Co.

FRENCH.

JUST PUBLISHED.

LOTI: SELECTIONS.

Edited by Prof. ARNOLD GUYOT CAMERON of Yale. With Portrait, lxii+185 pp. 70c. *net.*

A very comprehensive and sympathetic introduction, which briefly sums up all the author's principal works, is followed by a bibliography, and that by well-arranged selections, often a chapter in length, from *Le Mariage de Loti*, *Le Roman d'un Spahi*, *Mon frère Yves*, *Pecheur d'Islande*, *Mme. Chrysanthème*, *Japoneries d'Automne* and *Au Maroc*, and the stories *Chagrin d'un vieux forçat* and *Viande de boucherie* from *Le Livre de la Pitié et de la Mort*.

"The edition is in every way an excellent one, and ought to be largely used. I myself think that few modern writers are more adapted to be used by learners of French than Loti, and I hope next year to make use of your edition."—*Prof. L. O. Kuhns of Wesleyan.*

BY THE SAME EDITOR.

COPPÉE AND MAUPASSANT.

Seventeen Tales. With portraits. xlviii+188 pp 70c. *net.*

"The students are unanimous in saying that they have never been better pleased with any text book."—*Prof. Wm. K. Gillet of New York University.*

DAUDET,

CONTES DE. With portrait. xxiv+302 pp. 80c. *net.*

"By far the most satisfactory edition of Daudet's short stories."—*Prof. Ellen Wheeler of Peabody Normal College.*

—— LA BELLE NIVERNAISE (from above). Bds., 25c. *net.*

MÉRIMÉE:

COLOMBA. With VOCABULARY by OTIS G. BUNNELL, and portrait. xxvi+270 pp. 55c. *net.*

"We can think of no better selection for a class studying French than this."—*Public School Journal, Bloomington, Ills.*

RECENTLY PUBLISHED.

LITTÉRATURE FRANCAISE:

Deuxième Année, Dix-Huitième et Dix-Neuvième Siècle. Par E. AUBERT, Officier d'Académie. 290 pp. 16mo, $1.00.

Brief Summaries in French of the authors of each century (27 pp. to Eighteenth Century, 45 pp to Nineteenth Century) followed by representative selections from their works. The range of the selections is wide, including philosophy, letters, fiction, and verse.

"A volume of notable value . . . good as a sketch of what the student himself should fill out by more extended reading."—*The Outlook.*

HENRY HOLT & CO.,
29 W. 23d St., NEW YORK,
378 Wabash Ave., CHICAGO.

"A striking contribution to the literature of philosophy and of education."

A new volume of **Columbia University Contributions to Philosophy, Psychology, and Education.**

HEGEL AS EDUCATOR. By FREDERIC LUDLOW LUQUEER, Ph.D.,

Principal of Public School No. 110, Brooklyn, N. Y. 8vo, pp x+186. Pri e. $1.00 net.

New York Evening Post: "A very serviceable picture of Hegel's conceptions in a more concrete form than they have hitherto had, either in English or in German."

Revue Internationale de L'Enseignement (Paris): "We believe that this little book, by the judicious choice of the materials of which it is composed, will render a very real service to students."

G. Stanley Hall, in *The Pedagogical Seminary*: "A fascinating and translucent presentation of great value, which is sure to be welcomed by every one interested in the larger aspects of education."

The Outlook: "The study of Hegel as a man and of Hegel as an educator forms an excellent introduction to the study of Hegel's philosophy."

Deutsche Zeitschrift fur Auslandisches Unterrichtswesen (Leipzig): "This volume is an eloquent witness to the earnestness with which the new educational movement in America seeks to base the art of education on the fundamental principles of educational philosophy."

The Dial: "Hegel's most suggestive thoughts on education, preceded by a short but interesting introduction."

Send for a full list of the other volumes in this series. Address

THE MACMILLAN CO., Publishers, 66 Fifth Avenue, New York.

JUST PUBLISHED.

Explanatory Analysis OF St. Paul's First Epistle to Timothy.

By HENRY PARRY LIDDON, D.D., D.C.L., LL.D., late Chancellor and Canon of St. Paul's. 8vo, $1.75.

Sold by booksellers. Sent, postpaid, on receipt of price

LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO.,
91–93 Fifth Avenue, New York.

HATCHARDS.

This is the favorite BOOKSTORE, and for 100 years the resort of the smartest people in London. It is visited and patronized by all who love books. London is the great market for books, and all the best as well as the cheapest editions can be had by writing here. Special collections formed, and fuller information supplied than from any other house. Books, both old and new, and relating to any subject, can readily be supplied, at very moderate prices.

Agents for Clubs, Libraries, and all private collectors.

187. PICCADILLY, LONDON, W.

Professor Cope's Portrait.

A fine portrait of the late Professor **E. D. COPE** has been published by **GUTEKUNST.** It is of large size, suitable for framing, and is a speaking likeness, being not only a beautiful specimen of photography, but a lifelike portrait of the great scientist. **712 Arch Street, Philadelphia.**

DEERFIELD,

NEAR GREENFIELD, MASS.

A charming new house, fully furnished, to let for the summer; stable and forty acres of land. Rent will be low to a satisfactory tenant. Address ALEX. S. PORTER, 54 Devonshire St., Boston.

YALE MIXTURE.

The choicest tobacco made, and preëminently a gentleman's smoke.

Marburg Bros., The American Tobacco Co., Successor, Baltimore, Md.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED